Punishment

Appelasy

SLA

S.A. Rahman

#### THEORIES OF ISLAMIC LAW

#### Imran Ahsan Khan Nyazee

This book presents uṣūl al-fiqh as comprising not one, but at least three major theories or methodologies. Each of these theories had a distinct function to perform in the development of Islamic law. The first theory is shown to be based on the operation of general principles and the analytical method, the methodology of the second incorporates strict interpretation and analogy, while the third theory is based on the purposes of the Islamic shart ah. Today, each theory is principle to play in the suppresent of the law in a mode, it is a fifticient Islamic leave.

In the cooperating spheres. The price, which is partied to cooperating spheres. The price, which is partied, and the cooperating spheres. The price, which is partied, while the standard price of Islamic spheres, the law made by the standard price of Islamic spheres.

In aboution to the above, the book presents the content of *uṣūl al-fiqh* or Islamic legal theory in a manner that reflects the traditional approach, but takes into account the needs of the modern lawyer, judge, and scholar.

ISBN 81-7151-226-7

20x30/8

PP. 8+344

# KITAB BHAVAN

1784, Kalan Mahal, Darya Ganj, New Delhi-110 002 (India) Ph : 3274686, 3277392-93 Telex : 31-63106 ALI IN

Fax: 91-11-3263383

HALALCO BOOKS

(703) 532-3202

Justice S.A. Rahman has examined this vital question in the light of the Qur'an, the Sunnah, the practice of the "Rightly-Guided" Caliphs and the opinions of renowned Doctors of Law on the subject. This research study, it is hoped, would be of interest to our legislators, judges, members of the legal profession, Islamic educational institutions as well as to the intelligent lay reader.



Justice amined the ligh Sunnah "Right and the Doctors This rehoped, our leg bers of Islamic tions as gent la

# Punishment of APOSTASY IN ISLAM

S.A. RAHMAN (Rtd.) Chief Justice of Pakistan

KITABBhAVAN New Delhi-2 (India) Just ami the Sun

KITAB BHAVAN

Exporters and Importers 1784, Kalan Mahal, Darya Ganj, New Delhi-110002 (India)

Sun "Ri and Doc Thi hor our ber

Phones : 3274686, 3277392-93

ber Fax
Telex

: 91-11-3263383 : 31-63106 ALI IN

tioi gei

ISBN 81-7151-215-1

First Published in India 1996

Published by:

Nusrat Ali Nasri for Kitab Bhavan 1784, Kalan Mahal, Darya Ganj, New Delhi-110002 (India)

IS

Printed in India at: F.M. Offset Priners

Darya Ganj, New Delhi-2

#### CONTENTS

#### Introduction, 1-8

#### Chapters

- I. Apostasy and the Qur'an, 9-55
- II. Apostasy and the Sunnah, 56-86
- III. Apostasy and the "Khilafat al-Rāshidah," 87-103
- IV. Apostasy and the Fuqaha', 104-129
  - V. Summary and Conclusions, 130-138

Bibliography, 139-144

Just and the St. "IF are Do on be Is the gr

#### INTRODUCTION

The State of Pakistan is the end-result of a historical process which started with the first Muslim invasion of this subcontinent. Various factors, political, economic, social, cultural and religious, operated on and entered into the structure of the Muslim nation which emerged, in 1947, as a unique ideological State, comprising of two units separated by a thousand miles of hostile Indian territory. Its dominating inspiration, however, came from the religious consciousness of the Muslims of the subcontinent, which crystallised into an ardent longing for a terrestrial base for the working out of what was regarded as a Divine Plan of action in the socio-political sphere. Implementation of the Islamic values of life was declared to be the objective before the Founding Fathers of Pakistan by a formal Constitutional Instrument drawn up finally in 1956. The Constitution of 1956 was, however, superseded by the Martial Law regime in 1958, and, four years later, the Constitution of 1962 was promulgated by a Presidential Decree, under the protective umbrella of Martial Law. Whatever may have been the political overtones or undertones of that constitutional dispensation, it respected the ambition of the majority Muslim community to order their lives in accordance with the dictates of the Qur'an and the Sunnah, while ensuring cultural and religious autonomy and fundamental political equality to the non-Muslim minorities, like its predecessor in the constitutional field. Later political developments have thrown that instrument again into the melting pot.

1

#### Punishment of Apostasy in Islam

Though some political parties have sponsored schemes of a more equitable distribution of the means of production and wealth, under the undefined terminology of "Islamic Socialism," none has denied the efficacy of the religious motivation in the life of the Muslim community and, except for a small group of extremists, even the leftist parties have professed anxiety for pressing into service the principles of Islamic social justice. The question, therefore, as to what sort of polity the fundamentals of Islam envisage is very much a live issue in the context of our present-day politics.

The non-Muslims resident in Pakistan, since its

inception, were assured time and again by the Qā'idi-A'zam Muḥammad 'Alī Jinnāḥ, that they would have all the fundamental rights guaranteed to them, on a basis of equality with the members of the majority community and that they may even expect to receive generous rather than merely egalitarian treatment. These non-Muslims are neither dhimmīs nor mustā'mins in the technical sense of Muslim jurisprudence. Their position is assimilable to that of mu'āhids—the beneficiaries of a binding pact. There is august precedent available in Muslim history for this kind of integrating equation for certain State purposes, subject to the different communities enjoying full liberty of conscience and autonomy of action in the religious field, with the

overriding reservation that the Head of the State must belong to the numerically predominant community. The Prophet (on him be peace) had entered into such a pact with the Jewish and Christian tribes of Medina, after his migration from Mecca (the Hijrah).<sup>1</sup> The

<sup>1.</sup> Dr Muhammad Hamīdullah, Siyāsī Wathiqah fāt (Urdu translation), pp. 19-24.

#### Introduction

Qa'id-i-A'zam was, therefore, essentially right in holding out an assurance of this character to those non-Muslims who owed unquestioning allegiance to the State of Pakistan.

With a mixed population such as we have in Pakistan, the problem of inter-communal harmony assumes importance. Freedom of conscience, the right to profess as well as propagate one's own faith and to safeguard one's religious institutions, consistently with law and morality, would be regarded as the inviolable right of every community in the modern world. The position of the proselyte, if he happens to belong to the majority community, would present a testing ground of good faith and fair play in inter-communal relations. Unfortunately our Figh Compendiums do not enter on an analytical study of this problem, in the light of the Our'anic injunctions and authentic Sunnah, and no distinction apparently exists in the minds of the old jurists between apostasy simpliciter and apostasy combined with treason or severance of allegiance to the State. It is tacitly assumed that every apostate from Islam deserves the death penalty, not merely as a renegade from the true faith, but also as a muhārib an active rebel. Such a doctrine could have far-reaching repercussions in the socio-political sphere and might invite retaliatory legislation from countries where the Muslims happen to be in a minority. Eventually such a legislative war might put an end to all missionary activity in support of Islam.

The image of Islam created by some of the non-Muslim Western scholars strikes a humble student of the Qur'ān, like the present writer, to be a crude caricature of its liberal humanitarian teachings. Majid

Khadduri's appraisal of the Islamic Law on the subject of apostasy leads him to conclude that "both jurists and theologians agree that apostasy constitutes a violation of law, punishable both in this world and the next. Not only is the person denied salvation in the next world but he is liable to capital punishment by the State."2 Samuel M. Zwemer, Christian missionary in Egypt, claims that there are so few converts from amongst Muslims to Christianity, in spite of prodigious missionary efforts, because the sword of Damocles is always hanging over their heads in the shape of the death sentence, if they commit apostasy. He quotes from Dr Andrew Watson's History of the American Mission in Egypt (1854-94) an assertion that all seventyfive converts to Christia..ity, from among Muslims, were subject to persecution "because the idea of personal liberty—freedom of conscience—has no place in Moslem Law, whether religious or civil." Such distortions of the clear Our'anic injunction of there being no compulsion in religion (La ikrāha fi'd-Din) are, however, made possible (speaking with all respect) by uncritical generalisations of concrete decisions in our history, by our own scholars and jurisconsults. By and large, our orthodox Fugahā' (jurists) have taken the inclastic line that the punishment for apostasy in Islam is death. Echoes of this view are to be heard in the writings of some of our modern savants as well. Only two such instances may suffice to illustrate my point.

In the estimation of a reputed Muslim scholar, "Apostasy constitutes a politico-religious rebellion." He sums up his views in these terms: "The sayings and

<sup>2.</sup> Majid Khadduri, War and Peace in the Law of Islam, pp. 149-52.

<sup>3.</sup> Samuel M. Zwemer, The Law of Apostasy in Islam, Chapter I, pp. 17-20

#### Introduction

doings of the Prophet, the decisions and practice of the Caliph Abū Bakr, the consensus of opinion of the Companions of the Prophet and all the later Muslim jurisconsults and even certain indirect verses of the Qur'an, all prescribe capital punishment for an apostate."

Working out the logical consequences of a similar stand, another modern scholar, who also heads a religiopolitical party in Pakistan, expresses himself on the incidents of an Islamic State, with this pronouncement: "To my mind the solution lies in this (Wa-Allāhu almuwaffiqu li'l-sawāb = And God alone leads us into conformity with what is right)—whenever the Islamic revolution is successful, the Muslim population will be notified that those who renounce Islam, by declaration of a different faith or by their actions, but desire to remain subjects of the State, shall, within a year of the notification, proclaim themselves publicly to be non-Muslims and to be outside the pale of the Muslim community. After the expiry of this period, those born in Muslim households would be deemed to be Muslims, bound by all the Islamic Laws. They will be compelled to carry out all obligations and observe all injunctions of the Faith Thereafter if some one of them leaves the fold of Islam, he shall be put to death. After the issue of such a notification, all efforts shall be made to save as many of the Muslim-born children as possible from falling into the lap of disbelief, and those not amenable to the process of conservation shall have to be cut off from the social organism with a determined hand though a heavy heart. After this purge, the Islamic polity shall be inaugurated with the support of such

<sup>4.</sup> Dr M. Hamidullah, Muslim Conduct of State, Part III, Chapter IV, pp. 172 et seq.

Muslims as are devoted to Islam."6

This solemn pronouncement conjures up a vision of the shape of things to come which, the present writer ventures to think, will not commend itself to those thinking individuals who believe in Islam as a living force for all times and climes. Such writings would of course be avidly seized upon by censorious Western scholars as grist for their polemical mill.

In 1924-5, the question of punishment for apostasy was the subject of controversy between the Daily Hamdard of the late Maulana Muhammad 'Alī Jauhar and the Daily Zamindar of Lahore, edited by the late Maulana Zafar 'Ali Khan. This was occasioned by the stoning to death at Kabul, for alleged apostasy, of one, Ni'mat Ullah, a member of the Oadiyani section of the Ahmadi sect. M. Muhammad 'Ali Jauhar had, it seems, sponsored the thesis that Islam did not sanction any punishment for apostasy as such and from the side of the Zamindar this proposition was vehemently contested. The writer had access to the articles published on the subject in the Zamindar through the courtesy of Dr S. M. Ikram and Dr M. Jahangir Khan of the Research Society of Pakistan, Lahore. He regrets, however, that despite diligent search, he was unable to lay hands on the relevant files of the Hamdard. Judging from the material published in the Zamindar, both parties to the controversy were able to draw upon the authorities from the Sunnah and Muslim Figh, in support of their respective positions.

From the point of view of the solidarity and integrity of the Islamic community, the question assumes vital importance when we recall to mind the historic fact

<sup>5.</sup> S. Abu'l-A'la Maududī, Murtadd Ki Sozā Islami Qanun Men, pp. 75-6.

#### Introduction

that the so-called sects of Muslims have been too prone to condemn one another as disbelievers, on the basis of slight deviations from the orthodox position, in respect of doctrine or practice. The grounds on which a person could be declared to be a  $k\bar{a}fir$  (disbeliever) appear to be vast and varied and some idea of the wide field they cover may be obtained from a study of fasl al-thalith of bab al-awwal of al-Samara'i's Alikam al-Murtadd.6

With this background of facts in mind, I have ventured to examine de novo, in the light of the fundamental sources of Islamic Law, the question whether apostasy simpliciter, without any political strings attached, is at all punishable in Islam and, if so, whether it is possible to spell out of the historical precedents, cited in support of the death penalty for change of faith, any general rule laying down the measure of such punishment. I was encouraged to embark on this venture by the stimulating sixth lecture of the late 'Allamah Dr Sir Muhammad Igbal, headed as "The Principle of Movement in Islam". Among other profound observations, the following inspiring comment occurs therein: "The claim of the present generation of Muslim Liberals to reinterpret the foundational legal principles, in the light of their own experience and the altered conditions of modern life, is, in my opinion, perfectly justified. The teaching of the Quran that life is a process of progressive creation necessitates that each generation, guided but unhampered by the work of its predecessors, should be permitted to solve its own problems."7

<sup>6.</sup> Al-Samara'ī, Ahkam al-Murtadd, pp. 77-137.

<sup>7</sup> Dr. Sir Muhammad Iqbal, Six Lectures on the Reconstruction of Religious Thought in Islam, p. 234.

What follows is a humble attempt in the direction indicated by 'Allamah Iqbal, but neither finality nor infallibility is claimed for the opinions expressed herein: Wa-Allaho a'lam bi'l-ṣawāb (And God is the best knower of the truth).

#### Chapter I

# APOSTASY AND THE QUR'AN

Section I-The Spirit of the Qur'an

The Arabic equivalent for apostasy is riddah or irtidad from the root radd which, among other connotations, has the meaning "to retreate, to retire, to withdraw from or fall back from". In the context of Muslim Fig.' (jurisprudence) it is equated with renunciation or abandonment of Islam by one who professes the Islamic faith. The apostate is called Murtadd, According to Muslim jurists, apostasy may be committed with reference to belief, word or deed, or even by failure to observe certain obligatory practices. The person concerned must have attained majority, should be in full possession of his senses and should have acted voluntarily, if he is to be condemned as an apostate. An elaborate discussion of the antecedents of apostasy would be beyond the scope of our subject. An adequate summary of the jurists' views on this subject would be found in the second and third fusul (sections) of the first chapter (bab al-awwal) of al-Samara'i's Ahkām al-Murtadd.1

In the Introduction to his book, al-Samara'i observes as follows:

In the Book [the Qur'an] I found sometimes "al-riddah" mentioned expressly and sometimes by import. I followed up the verses in the various commentaries and I arrived at the con-

clusion that the punishment of the apostate (and that is death) is not to be found in the Book but finds mention in the Sunnah only.<sup>2</sup>

This view is fairly representative of the opinions of scholars who have written on the subject. There is absolutely no mention in the Qur'ān of any punishment for apostasy to be inflicted in this world. In the article headed "Murtadd" in the Encyclopaedia of Islam (Leyden, 1932), Professor Heffening has acknowledged this fact expressly.

Dr Muhammad Hamidullah, in his Muslim Conduct of State, has referred to some "indirect verses of the Qur'an" as bearing on the point of punishment for apostasy, viz. al-Mā'idah, verse 54, and al-Aḥzāb, verse 57, but it is difficult to agree with him that these verses can be pressed into service for sustaining the capital sentence for apostasy. For his main thesis, M. Abu'l-A'lā Maudūdī has relied on the Qur'ānic verses: "Faintābāwa aqām-uṣ-ṣalātawa ātawuz-zākāta, fa ikhwānukum fid-dīn; wa nufaṣṣil-ul-āyāti li qaumīn ya'lamun. Wa in nakathā aimānahum min ba'di 'ahdihim wa ta'anā fī dīnikum faqātilā a'immat al-kufri, innahum lā aimāna lahum la'allahum yantahān" (Taubah, verses 11-12).

He has interpreted these verses in a sense which is at variance with their generally accepted connotation. According to him, they should be rendered as: "Then if they repent (of their disbelief) and observe prayer and pay the 'Zakāt,' they are your brethren in faith. We explain Our injunctions for a people who have knowledge. But if they break their oaths, after their covenant (i.e. their covenant to accept Islam)

<sup>2.</sup> Ibid., p. 12.

<sup>3.</sup> Vol. III, Part 2, p. 737.

and make your Din the target of their taunts, then fight these leaders of disbelief, for their oaths cannot be depended upon-maybe that they shall thus desist."4 He construes the word 'ahd as meaning a "covenant to accept Islam". This construction, generally speaking, is not borne out by any of the well-known commentaries, published in the Indo-Pak subcontinent or abroad. Maulānā Shāh 'Abdul Qādir,5 Maulānā Ashraf 'Alī Thānawī,6 Maulānā Maḥmūd al-Hasan Deobandī,7 Maulānā Shabbīr Ahmad 'Uthmāni,' Maulānā Shāh Muhammad Ahmad Rida' Khan Barelvi, Sayyid Muhammad Na'im-ud-Din Muradabādī,8 Maulānā Abu'l-Kalām Azād, M. Muhammad 'Alī, Mr 'Abdullah Yūsuf 'Alī,11 Nawāb Siddīq Hasan Khān,12 take the term 'ahd as equivalent to a political pact and, in their comments on these verses, give the history of the agreements between the Muslims and the disbelieving Quraish, starting from the Peace of Hudaibiyyah, as the background for their revelation. The standard

5. Shah 'Abdul Qadir, Tafsir Maudah al-Qur'an, p. 172.

7. Qur'an Majid Mutarjam wa Muhashshah, Urdu translation by M. Mahmud al-Hasan, and marginal commentary by M. Shabbir Ahmud 'Uthmani,

p**p. 242-3**.

9. Abu'l-Kalam Azad, Tarjuman al-Qur'an, Vol. II, p. 77.

10. M. Muhammad Ali, English translation and commentary of the Holy Qur'an, with Arabic text, 3rd edn. (1935), pp. 398-9.

11. Abdullah Yusuf Ali, English translation with commentary of the Holy

Qur'an, Vol. I, pp. 436-7, 441.

<sup>4.</sup> S. Abu'l-A'lā Maudūdī, Murtadd Ki Sazā Islāmi Qānun Men, pp. 11-2.

<sup>6.</sup> M. Ashraf 'Alī Thānawī, Mu'jiz Numā' Hamā'il Sharīf (with Urdu translation), pp. 299-300; also his Bayān Qur'ān (Urdu commentry), Vols. IV, V & VI, pp. 92-3, 98-99.

<sup>8.</sup> Al-Qur'ān al-Ḥakim, with Urdu translation by Mustī Shāh Muḥammad Aḥmad Ridā' Khūn—marginal commentary by Sayyid M. Na'īm-ud-Dīn, pp. 271-2.

<sup>12.</sup> Nawab Siddiq Hasan Khan, Fath al-Bayan, Vol. IV, p. 86.

ex. etical works of Baidāwī, 13 Zamakhsharī, 14 al-Jassās, 15 Fakhr-ud-Din al-Rāzi,10 and al-Alusi,17 too, take an identical view so far as the word 'ahd is concerned. But while interpreting these verses and the next, all except Jassas refer to the lesser-known alternative reading of aimanahum (their oaths) as imanahum (their faiths) and indicate that the suggested alternative would require the rendering to be: "And if they break what they have said in the oath of allegiance as part of their faith or as part of their promise to fulfil covenants." Rāzī and Alūsī, however, give distinct preference to the construction based on political covenants, for, as Rāzī observes, "the verse was revealed in respect of those who broke their covenants" and he rejects the alternative reading of imanahum as not in conformity with the context. Zamakhshari, it may be noted, also translates the identical words "nakāthū aimānahum" occurring in the following verse as referring to their political agreement. Paidawī adopts the reading "iman" for "aiman" only in the expression "innahum la aimāna lahum" and he too equates the words "nakath" aimānahum" in the next verse with the breach of faith in respect of covenants with the Prophet and the Muslims. The Tafsir al-Manar<sup>18</sup> in its exposition of these verses records that they clearly relate to the mushrikin (polytheists) of Arabia who had entered into covenants with the faithful but

<sup>13.</sup> Tafsir Baidāwi with Tafsir Jalalain of al-Suyūṭī, and al-Muḥallā on margin, Vol. I, p. 340.

<sup>14.</sup> Zamakhsharī, al-Kashshāf, Vol. II, pp. 251 et seq.

Al-Jassās, Aḥkām al-Qur'ān, Vol. III, p. 105.
 Rāzī, Tafsir al-Kabīr, Vol. IV, p. 416.

<sup>17.</sup> Alūsī, Ruh-al-Ma'āni, Vol. X, pp 42, 57, 58.

<sup>18.</sup> Rashīd Ridā', Tafsīr al-Manār, Vol. X, pp. 187-91.

had deliberately broken them and adds that the generatity of the injunction embodied in them would comprehend all those whose relations with the Muslims can be assimilated to those with the mushrikin. Maulana Maudūdī, therefore, does not have the sanction of any clear-cut authority behind his interpretation which is also inconsistent with the theme of Surah Taubah. The object of the fighting against infidels specified at the end of the verse is to make them "desist" (from their actions). This object accords with the preferred construction. If the persons concerned were to be killed for apostasy, there should have been no question of an attempt to making them "desist" from their course. The subsequent verses establish that the disbelievers had repeatedly broken their covenants and had taken the initiative in the fighting. The directive given is to fight them to ensure peace and order and not to slav them, par excellence, as Baidawi explicitly clarifies.

The position that emerges, then, is that it is not possible to spell out the death penalty for apostasy from a study of the Qur'an alone, and this fact was acknowledged by some writers in the Zamindār. Indeed, if dispassionate consideration is given to the Qur'anic text, without preconceived notions, it will be found that the punishment of the apostate is postponed to the Hereafter. In matters concerning the individual conscience, the Qur'an places no fetters on free choice. The appeal of the Qur'an is to history, observation and reason, in support of its invitation to the path of faith and rectitude. Even to contestants of the truth, it issues a challenge to adduce evidence to sustain their assertions. "Qul hātū burhānakum in kuntum ṣādiqīn" (al-Baqarah, verse 112): "Say: Bring forth

your proof, if you are truthful." This rational approach runs like a golden thread throughout the fabric of the Qur'anic teachings. To emphasise the importance of the deliberative function, the Qur'an declares in ringing terms of admonition: "And be not like those who say 'We hear,' but they hear not. Surely the worst of beasts in the sight of Allah are the deaf and the dumb, who have no sense" (al-Anfal, verses 22-23).

To attribute an intention to the Divine Scheme. of compelling renegades from the true faith to resume their allegiance to God and the Prophet on pain of being killed, would apparently run counter to the letter and spirit of the various directives and admonitions included in the Our'an, pertinent to this question. The call to the Way of the Lord is to be made with wisdom and fair exhortation and people are to be reasoned with, "in the better way" (Sūrat al-Nahl, verse 127). Even the false gods of the opponents of the faith are to be immune from abusive references, Says the Our'an: "Revile not those unto whom they pray besides Allah, lest they, out of spite, revile Allah through ignorance. Thus unto every people have We made their doings seem fair. Then unto their Lord is their return; and He will inform them of what they used to do" (al-An'am, verses 109-110). If war (only defensive wars are permitted) is to be resorted to, its objective must be the establishment of the fundamental human right of liberty of conscience. In Surat al-Baqarah, it is solemnly declared: "Fight in the way of Allah against those who fight against you, but do not transgress. Surely Allah loves not the transgressors. And slay them wherever you find them and drive them out of the places whence they drove you out,

for persecution is worse than slaughter. And fight not with them near the Sacred Mosque until they first attack you there, but if they fight you, then slay them. Such is the requital for disbelievers. But if they desist, then let there be no hostility except against wrongdoers' (verses 192-195).

Condign punishment in this world is only reserved for those who are out to fight the faithful and disrupt the social order. Their case is dealt with in Sūrat al-Mā'idah (verses 34-35) in the following words: "The only reward of those who make war upon Allah and His Messenger and strive to create disorder in the land, will be that they will be slain or crucified or have their hands and feet on alternate sides cut off, or will be expelled from the land. Such will be their degradation in the world, and in the Hereafter theirs will be an awful doom, save those who repent before you overpower them. For know that Allah is Forgiving, Merciful."

Duress or coercion in matters of belief does not enter into the composition of the social system envisaged by the Qur'an. Clear guidance in a truly humanitarian spirit of tolerance is given to the Muslims in this field in several verses which recognise the existence of a pluralistic milieu, though of course a categorical distinction is drawn between those who follow the Straight Path and those who are misguided and have become impervious to the signs of God. The latter are warned of the punishment awaiting them in the Hereafter. The realistic and humanistic stance of the Qur'an is amply illustrated by the following, among other commandments:

(1) Lo! those who believe (in that which is revealed unto thee, Muhammad), and those who are Jews, and

Christians, and Sabeans—whoever believes in Allah and the Last Day and does right—surely their reward is with their Lord and no fear shall come upon them, nor shall they grieve" (al-Baqarah, verse 63).

(2) Lo! those who disbelieve and die while they are disbelievers, on them shall be the curse of Allah and of angels and men combined (al-Baqarah, verse 257).

(3) There is no compulsion in religion. Surely the right direction is henceforth distinct from error. And he who rejects false deities and believes in Allah has grasped a firm handlehold which will never break. And Allah is Hearer, Knower (al-Baqarah, verse 257).

This (verse 257) is one of the most important verses of the Qur'an, containing a charter of freedom of conscience unparalleled in the religious annals of mankind and deserves detailed discussion. It is with regret mingled with perturbation that one notices attempts made by Muslim scholars themselves to whittle down its broad humanistic meaning by imposing limitations on its scope, dictated by exigencies of theological controversies that arose in the course of our history. By this means it was intended to corelate the word of God with what was understood to be the Prophet's Sunnah or to reconcile it with inferences drawn from historical precedents whose full background was seldom explored.

Some of the exegetists of the Qur'an¹º cite the opinion that this verse had been abrogated by other verses such as: "O Prophet, strive against the disbelievers and the hypocrites. Be harsh with them" (al-Taubah, verse

<sup>19.</sup> Şiddiq Hasan Khān, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 426; Abī Bakr Ibn al-Arabī, Aḥkām al-Qur'ān, Part I, p. 232; Ibn Hayyān, Baḥr al-Muḥit, Vol. II, p. 281; Ālūsī, op. cit., Vol. III, pp. 12-3; Zamakhsharī, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 303 and 387.

73); "O ye who believe! fight those of the disbelievers who are near to you and let them find harshness (hardness) in you" (al-Taubah, verse 123); and "Say unto the wandering Arabs who were left behind: 'You will be called against a folk of mighty prowess, to fight them until they surrender' " (al-Fath, verse 17). But the majority of the commentators prefer the reports which suggest that the verse under examination was revealed with reference to the case of an Ansar woman who had vowed that if her son survived, she would make him a Jew. The son had joined the Jewish tribe of Banū Nadīr in Medina, but when this tribe was banished therefrom, for their perfidy, the Ansar tried to detain the boy and to convert him to Islam. This was not allowed to be done because of this revelation. An alternative version connects it with the case of an Ansar named Hasīn whose two sons were Christian. Hasīn consulted the Prophet (peace be upon him) who forbade him from his intention to force them into the Islamic fold. Still another version links the verse with the case of a slave from the Ahl al-Kitāb (People of the Scripture) whose adherence to his own faith was respected under this injunction. Finally it was given out as the opinion of some that it was meant to cover the case of those People of the Book who had submitted to the Muslims and had agreed to pay Jizyah (poll-tax).20

The wording of the verse is perfectly general and the versions about its  $sh\bar{a}n$ -i- $nuz_{i\bar{i}l}$  (occasion for revelation) cannot detract from the full effect of the eternal

<sup>20.</sup> Ibn 'Abbās, Tafsīr, with al-Suyūṭī's Lubab al-Nuqūl, p. 114; al-Suyūṭī, al-Durr al-Manthūr, Vol. I, pp. 329-30; Ibn Ḥayyān, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 426 et seq.; Ālūsī, op. cit., Vol. III, pp. 12-3; Zamakhsharī, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 303 and 387 et seq.

principles of human polity, laid down therein. It would be pertinent to consider, in this connection, the acute observations of Shah Wali Ullah, in his al-Fauz al-Kabir fi Usul al-Tafsir.21 In Chapter III, headed "Asbab-i-Nuzul," he says: "Knotty problems arise in connection with the question of asbāb-i-nuzūl (grounds of revelation). This is due to differences in technical expressions used by earlier and later exponents. From the statements of the Companions and those who followed them, the conclusion can be drawn that when these venerable persons say that an ayah was revealed in the context of such and such incident, then it is not intended to confine its application to that incident which might have occurred during the Prophet's time and occasioned the revelation. These venerable persons were in the habit of mentioning incidents or situations in the Prophet's lifetime or thereafter which, according to their view, were linked with a verse. This did not necessarily lead to the inference that the verse in question would wholly and exclusively pertain to such incident or situation. On the contrary, the verse should be held to convey the commandment contained therein, generally."

Some extraordinary observations are, however, to be met with in the interpretation of this important verse in learned commentaries of exegetists whose erudition, piety and scholarship are universally acknowledged and above question. For instance, no less a personality than Shah Walī Ullāh, in his Persian translation of the Qur'ān, the Fath al-Raḥmān, while giving the generally accepted rendering of the verse in the main context, adds a marginal gloss which reads: "That is to say, the reasoned guidance of Islam has become manifest. There-

<sup>21.</sup> Urdu translation by Muhammad Salīm 'Abdullah, pp. 96-7.

after, so to speak, there is no compulsion, although, in sum, there may be coercion."<sup>22</sup> In other words, coercion is justified by a good cause and, in such a case, what appears to be compulsion is no compulsion at all. With the highest reverence for the great savant, it would take a lot of persuasion to accept this kind of sophistication as consistent with the clarity and forthrightness of the Kitāb al-Mubīn (the Explicit Book). There is no indication in the text that the words are to be understood in a restricted or qualified sense, nor would the shān-i-nuzul reports justify that course. Such an interpretation can perhaps be attributed to the unconscious pressure of orthodox tradition.

Kindred comments are included in the Fath al-Bayan of Nawab Siddiq Hasan Khan.23 According to one view, mentioned therein, one should not say of a person converted to Islam under the shadow of the sword. that he was compelled to the Faith for "there is no compulsion in Religion". Another construction cited therein (also noticed by Alūsī in Rūh al-Ma'ānī<sup>24</sup> and by Ibn Hayyan in Bahr al-Muhit<sup>25</sup>) confines the verse to the People of the Scriptures, who submitted to the Muslims and agreed to pay Jizyah (poll-tax) but excludes the idolaters from its scope. In the case of the latter, only two alternatives are said to be open-Islam or the sword—on the authority of al-Sha'bi, al-Hasan, Qatadah and al-Dahhāk. Siddīg Hasan Khān recognises the accepted principle of exegesis that regard will be had to the generality of the words and not to the particular

<sup>22.</sup> Shah Wali Ullah, Fath al-Rahman (1301 H.), p. 57.

<sup>23.</sup> P. 177.

<sup>24.</sup> Vol. III, pp. 12-3.

<sup>25.</sup> Vol. II, p. 281.

circumstances that occasioned the revelation but claims that the general is here particularised by other verses which sanctioned the use of force against ahl al-harb (fighters) among disbelievers. He has not specified the verses he had in mind but, in any event, the argument is specious. For those who fight the Muslims fall in a different category from those who differ from the faithful, without being aggressive.

Ibn al-'Arabi in his Ahkām al-Our'ān26 is much more categorical in his assertions. He declares dogmatically that to compel to the truth is part of the Faith, on the authority of a hadith: "I have been commanded to fight people till they recite the declaration of faith (Lā ilāha ill-Allāh: there is no god but Allah)," which he considers to have been derived from the Our'anic verse: "And fight them until persecution is no more and religion is for Allah alone" (al-Anfal, verse 40; al-Baqarah, verse 194). Issue may be fairly joined with the learned commentator on the point of this verse supplying the authority for the reported hadith, for the verse clearly and explicitly enjoins fighting to end religious persecution and lends no support to the theory of justification of force even in the interest of truth. Ibn al-'Arabi puts forward the specious argument that "the Prophet was charged with the mission to invite people to the Straight Path and to establish Hujjat Allah and that, after a time, God changed his condition from one of a victim of persecution to that of security and from weakness to strength and provided him with strong helpers and commanded him to resort to the sword for the fulfilment of his mission." This view would imply that the injunction against use of force in the matter of religion was

limited to the initial period of weakness of the Muslims and its non-observance would be permissible from a position of strength and prosperity. There is no warrant for such a conclusion to be found in any Our'anic verse and indeed the ethical plane of such argumentation is too obvious to require comment. Clearly when the Banū Nadīr were being banished from Medina, the Ansar woman's son, who was with them, could have been very easily detained by the Muslims, for the Banu Nadir would have been in no position to resist. But God's infinite Wisdom had prescribed otherwise and the Muslims submitted to the Divine Odinance. The circumstances surrounding the saying ascribed to the Prophet are not brought out in the Ahkām al-Qur'an and, for all we know, it may have relevance to the case of active enemies of Islam.

There is good authority for the opposite view. While discussing the contributions of Imam Ibn Taimiyyah to Fiqh, Professor Abū Zahrah of Egypt, in his book Imām Ibn Taimiyyah,<sup>27</sup> summarises the Imām's opinion in the following terms:

On the first question as to whether it is permissible to fight the disbelievers on the ground of their disbelief or on that of their tyranny and transgression, the Imām refers to two schools of thought among the 'Ulamā'. The first school holds that, according to Imām Mālik, Imām Aḥmad b. Ilanbal, Imām Abū Ḥanīfah and others, and the majority of 'Ulamā' and A'immah, fighting with disbelievers is allowed only if they are bent upon oppression and tyranny. From this opinion it follows that war with infidels is not permissible in any other circumstances. Consequently fighting can be resorted to as a defensive measure or in response to aggression, even if it turns out to be a case of emergency. But in such a fight

only the active combatants or their inciters will be killed, and women, anchorites and disabled or old people, who neither participate in the fighting nor exhort others to do so, will not be slain. In brief, the disbeliever who does not take up arms, does not urge others to fight and is not guilty of any hostile act in connection with the war shall not be put to death.

The second school is of the opinion that war with the disbelievers is grounded on their disbelief. That means that fighting is obligatory with them simply because they are infidels and not because they are inclined towards tyranny. This is the creed of Imam Shafi'i. Therefore, under this principle, every disbeliever who has attained majority and discretion would be deserving of capital punishment, irrespective of whether he is capable of fighting or not, whether he is himself on the war path or not and whether he is actively assisting his comrades (the disbelievers) to pursue the fight or not.

In this regard, Imām Ibn Taimīyyah considers the first opinion, viz. the opinion of the majority, to be correct and, in support of his position, cites authorities from the Qur'ān and the Sunnah.

The authorities referred to by the Imām include the very verse under discussion ( $l\bar{a}$   $ikr\bar{a}ha$  fi'd- $d\bar{i}n$ ), which, he says, is neither abrogated nor circumscribed in scope by any incident or other consideration. He also cites the verses: "Fight in the way of Allah against those who fight against you, but begin not hostilities" (al-Baqarah, verse 191) and "Fight with them until presecution is no more and religion is only for Allah" (al-Baqarah, verse 194). Reliance is also placed by him on Traditions showing that the Prophet had forbidden the slaying of women because of their lack of capacity to fight and had never forced any war captives to adopt Islam. He points out that all wars of the Prophet were defensive in character—a subject he expounds in his Risālat al-Qitāl.

Shaikh Maḥmūd Shaltūt, in his Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-Ḥakīm,28 also clearly endorses the view ofIm ām Ibn Taimīyyah by saying that disbelief alone cannot make it lawful to kill a disbeliever, but there must be an element of aggression and hostile transgression with it to justify action.

In the Bahr al-Muhit the view of Imam Malik and Kalbi that this avah is not confined to the ahl al-qital but embraces within its pale all disbelievers, who may have elected to pay lizyeh, also finds a place. What is highly significant and important is that Ibn Hayyan gives prominence to the more logically consistent interpretation (which is in conformity with the letter and spirit of the Our'an) that even a person who renounces Islam for another religion cannot be compelled to revert to his former faith. Then follows the opinion attributed to Abū Muslim and al-Oifal that the meaning of the verse is that God has not based matters of iman (faith) on compulsion and force but on voluntary and free choice, for the arguments in favour of Tauhid (Divine Unity) have become manifest by full exposition. After that, there is no excuse left for disbelief so that one may say that the disbeliever should be obliged to adopt the faith and be bound to it. But that is not permissible in this world of trial and tribulation, for coercion and constraint for the faith negatives the reality of trial and testing. This reasoning is also adverted to by al-Zamakhsharī in al-Kashshāf and by Alūsī in his Ruh al-Ma'ānī. The former cites the Our'anic verse: "If thy Lord had willed (enforced His Will), all who are in the earth would have believed together; wouldst thou compel men until they are believers?" (Yūnus, verse 100) as authority

sanctioning this opinion.

Ibn Kathīr<sup>29</sup> apparently takes a broad view of this verse and remarks that it would serve no useful purpose for a person blind of heart and whose hearing and seeing faculties are sealed by Providence, to enter the fold of Islam, under coercion. He then mentions the shān-i-nuzūl to be the case of the Anṣār woman who wanted to retrieve her son from the Jews but adds that the injunction contained in the verse is general in character.

The Tafsir al-Manār³o describes the commandment contained in this verse as one of the greatest principles of the Islamic faith and one of the majestic pillars of Islamic polity (siyāsah). The compiler formulates the principle in these terms: "It is not permissible to subject anyone to coercion to make him accept Islam, nor will anyone be heard to say that a member of his household was compelled to go out from it," and cites the verse: "And if thy Lord had willed, all who are in the earth would have believed together" in corroboration of this position.

It has also been suggested<sup>31</sup> that, though no one can be forced to adopt Islam against his will, yet if he once joins the Islamic community voluntarily, he will not be allowed to leave the sacred fold but will be compelled to recant if he commits apostasy. To the charge of inconsistency of this view with the verse under discussion and other verses of similar import, the reply is made that the inconsistency would vanish if the proselyte is forewarned that once he voluntarily enters the fortress

<sup>29.</sup> H. 'Imād-ud-Dīn Abu'l-Fidā' Ismā'īl b. Kathīr, Tafsir al-Qur'ān al-'Aṣim, Vol. I, p. 310.

<sup>30.</sup> Rashīd Ridā', op. cit., Vol. III, p. 39. 31. Abu'l-A'lā Maudūdī, op. cit., pp. 50-1.

of Islam, he will not be permitted to leave it alive. In the humble opinion of the present writer, no semantic strait jacket can possibly yield such an implication from the text of this verse.

- (4) And if they argue with thee (O Muḥammad), say: I have surrendered myself completely to Allah and (so have) those who follow me. And say to those who have received the Scripture and those that are unlettered: Have you (also) surrendered? If they surrender, then truly they are rightly guided, and if they turn away, then it is thy duty to convey the message (unto them). And Allah is watchful of (His) bondmen (Al-i-'Imrān, verse 21).
- (5) Say: O people of the Scripture! come to an agreement between us and you: that we shall worship none but Allah and that we shall ascribe no partner unto Him and that none of us shall take others for lords besides Allah. And if they turn away, then say: Bear witness that we are they who have surrendered (unto Him (Āl-i-'Imrān, verse 65).
- (6) He who turns back on his heels, shall do no hurt to Allah at all and Allah will reward the thankful (Āl-i-'Imrān, verse 145).
- (7) Whoso obeys the Messenger obeys Allah and whoso turns away, (then) We have not sent thee as a warder over them (al-Nisa', verse 81).
- (8) And whose opposeth the Messenger after the guidance (of Allah) has become manifest to him and follows other than the believers' way, We appoint for him that to which he has himself turned and cast him into Hell—a hapless journey's end (al-Nisa', verse 116).
  - (9) And if you disbelieve, lo! to Allah belongs what-

soever is in the heavens and whatsoever is in the earth and Allah is Self-Sufficient, Owner of Praise (al-Nisa', verse 132).

(10) For each of you, We have prescribed a Divine Law and a traced-out way. Had Allah willed He could have made you one community but (He wishes) to try you by that which He has given you. So vie with one another in good works (al-Ma'idah, verse 53).

(11) Obey Allah and obey the Messenger and beware! But if you turn away, then know that the duty of Our Messenger is only plain conveyance (of the message)

(al-Mā'idah, verse 93).

(12) The duty of the Messenger is only to convey (the message). Allah knows what you proclaim and what you hide (al-Ma'idah, verse 100).

(13) O you who believe! you have charge of your own souls. He who goes astray cannot injure you if you are rightly guided. To Allah you will all return; and then He will inform you of what you used to do (al-Mā'idah, verse 106).

(14) And if their aversion is grievous unto thee, then if thou canst, seek a way down into the earth or a ladder unto heaven that thou mayest bring unto them a portent (to convince them all)! If Allah willed, He could have brought them all together to the guidance—so be not thou among the foolish ones (al-An'ām, verse 36).

(15) We send not the messengers save as bearers of good news and as warners. So those who believe and do right, no fear shall come upon them, neither shall they

grieve (al-An'am, verse 49).

(16) Thy people (O Muḥammad) have denied it, though it is the truth. Say: I am not put in charge of you (al-An'am, verse 67).

- (17) Proofs have come unto you from your Lord, so whose sees, it is for his own good and whose is blind is blind to his own hurt. And I am not a keeper over you (al-An'ām, verse 105).
- (18) Had Allah willed, they would not have set up gods with Him. We have not set thee as a keeper over them, nor are thou responsible for them (al-An'am, 108).
- (19) Thus have We appointed unto every Prophet an adversary—devils of mankind and Jinn, who inspire in one another plausible discourse through guile. If thy Lord willed, they would not do so: so leave them alone with their devising (al-An'ām, verse 113).
- (20) Say: For Allah's is the final argument—had He willed, He could have guided all of you (al-An'am, verse 150).
- (21) And fight them until persecution is no more and religion is all for Allah. But if they desist, Allah is seer of what they do (al-Anfāl, verse 40).
- (22) And if they incline to peace, incline thou also to it and trust in Allah. Lo! He is the Hearer, the Knower (al-Anfāl, verse 62).
- (23) And if any one of the idolaters seeks thy protection (O Muḥammad), then protect him so that he may hear the word of Allah and afterwards convey him to his place of safety. That is because they are a folk who know not (al-Taubah, verse 6).
- (24) Know they not that whoso opposes Allah and His Messenger, his portion verily is Hell, to abide therein. That is the extreme abasement (al-Taubah, verse 63).
- (25) And if they deny thee, say: Unto me my work and unto you your work. You are innocent of what I do and I am innocent of what you do (Yūnus, verse 42).
  - (26) And if thy Lord willed, all who are in the earth

would have believed together. Wouldst thou (Muḥammad) compel men until they are believers? (Yūnus, verse 100).

- (27) Say: O mankind! now has the truth come to you from your Lord. So whosoever is guided only for (the good of) his soul and whosoever errs, errs only against it. And I am not a warder over you (Yūnus, verse 109).
- (28) And if thy Lord had willed, He verily would have made mankind one nation but they would not cease to differ, save him on whom thy Lord has mercy and for that He did create them (Hūd, verses 119-120).
- (29) And most men will not believe even though thou ardently desire (it) (Yūsuf, verse 104).
- (30) Do not those who believe know that, had Allah willed He could have guided all mankind (al-Ra'd, verse 32).
- (31) And Allah's is the direction of way and some (roads) go not straight (al-Nahl, verse 10).
- (32) Whosoever follows the right way, follows it only for the good of his own soul and whosoever errs, errs only to its hurt. No laden soul can bear another's load. We never punish until We have sent a messenger (Banī Isrā'īl, verse 16).
- (33) Say: (It is) the truth from your Lord. Then whosoever will, let him believe and whosoever will, let him disbelieve. Verily We have prepared for the wrongdoers fire whose (flaming) canopy shall enclose them (al-Kahf, verse 30).
- (34) Say: Obey Allah and obey the Messenger. But if you turn away, he is responsible for what he is charged with and you are responsible for what you are charged with. If you obey him, you will go aright. And the Messenger has no other charge than to convey (the message) plainly (al-Nūr, verse 55).

- (35) Nor canst thou lead the blind out of their error. Thou canst make none to hear, save those who believe Our revelations, so they submit (al-Naml, verse 82).
- (36) And whoso goes right, goes right only for (the good) of his own soul; and as for him who goes astray—say: I am only a warner (al-Naml, verse 93).
- (37) Surely thou canst not guide whomsoever thou lovest; but Allah guides whomsoever He pleases; and He is best aware of those who walk aright (al-Qaṣaṣ, verse 57).
- (38) For verily thou (Muḥammad) canst not make the dead to hear, nor canst thou make the dead to hear the call, when they retreat, turning their backs; nor canst thou guide the blind out of their error. Thou canst make none to hear save those who believe in Our revelations so that they submit (to Him) (al-Rūm, verses 53-54).
- (39) And as for him who disbelieves, let not his disbelief grieve thee; unto Us is their return and We shall tell them what they did. Lo! Allah is aware of what is in the breasts (of men) (Luqman, verse 24).
- (40) Is he, the evil of whose deeds is made far-seeing unto him so that he deemeth it good (like one who believes and does good deeds)? Verily Allah lets go astray whom He wills and guides whom He wills. So let not thy soul expire in sighings for them. Lo! Allah is aware of what they do! (al-Fāṭir, verse 9).
- (41) Verily We have revealed to thee the Book for mankind with truth. Then whoever follows guidance, it is for his own soul and whoever goes astray, strays only to its hurt. And thou art not a warder over them (al-Zumar, verse 42).
- (42) Lo! those who disbelieve and hinder (man) from the Way of Allah and oppose the Messenger after guid-

ance has become manifest to them, they hurt Allah not a jot, and He will make their actions fruitless (Muḥammad, verse 33).

(43) We are best aware of what they say and thou art in no wise a compeller over them. But warn by the Qur'an him who fears My warning (Qaf, verse 46).

(44) Obey Allah and obey His Messenger; but if you turn away, then the duty of Our Messenger is only to convey (the message) plainly (al-Taghabun, verse 13).

(45) (My responsibility is) only conveyance (of the truth) from Allah and His Messages, and whoso disobeys Allah and His Messenger, surely for him is the fire of Hell wherein he shall abide (al-Jinn, verse 24).

(46) Remind them, for thou art but a remembrancer; thou art not at all a warder over them (al-Ghāshiyah, verses 22-23).

(47) Unto you your religion and unto me my religion (al-Kāfirūn, verse 7).

These Divine ordinances provide the keynote for the conduct of Muslims in war and peace. The climate of tolerance and human liberty which they signalise would form an illuminating background for a true understanding of the Qur'ānic injunctions which bear directly or indirectly on the fate of those for whom the truth is obscured by the workings of their erring minds and who decide to give up their allegiance to Islam for another creed. It is manifest that the Divine Scheme envisaged by the Qur'ān gives ample scope for the evolution of the human personality during its earthly existence, in an empirically oriented atmosphere. The Qur'ān declares expressly: "And verily We shall try you till We know those of you who strive hard (for the cause of Allah) and

the steadfast and till We test your record. And We will make known the (true) facts about you" (Muhammad, verse 32). Guidance for the good life is furnished but not at the cost of suppression of human dignity. Vistas of a future life in which the fruits of action in the present life are to be harvested are also held up before the thinking individual, but the existential choice is left to the individual himself. No reward can be earned by action motivated by coercion—the mind and hand of man must be in harmony if best results of his activity are to be ensured. Islam to be Islam must be accepted absolutely voluntarily by a free person. 32 The Our'an talks of "the nature (framed) of Allah in which He has created man" (al-Rum, verse 31). The "nature of Allah" is Divine Unity which carries within its concept, by implication, the unity of mankind. This nature, in other words, is Islam and to it the Prophet in a well-known saying referred when he said: "Every child is born according to the Fitrah (Nature), and then his parents make him a Jew, a Christian or a Magian" (Bukhārī). The religion to which unsullied human nature conforms and instinctively reacts is Islam, but it is his environment and the training he receives under the tutelage of his parents that subsequently fashion his beliefs. After distinguishing the true from the false. God's Book leaves the individual sensibility free choice of direction in the spiritual realm.

# Section II-Verses Bearing on Apostasy

The verses in the Qur'an which refer to apostasy and its effects are dispersed throughout the Word of God. We will consider them in the order in which they appear in the Qur'an.

(1) And they will not cease from fighting against you till they have made you renegades from your religion, if they can. And whoso from among you turns back from his Faith and dies while he is a disbeliever: such are they whose works shall be vain in this world and in the Hereafter. These are the inmates of the Fire and therein they shall abide (al-Baqarah, verse 218).

The verse clearly envisages the natural death of the renegade after apostasy. The word used in the Arabic text fa-yamut is significant. At another place, the Our'an itself distinguishes between natural death and death by being slain, in the verse: "And Muhammad is but a messenger; messengers (the like of him) have passed away before him. If then he dies or is slain, will you turn back on your heels?" (Al-i-'Imran, verse 195). The two words in the original are māta and qutila. The implication of the verse is unmistakable that the Our'anic Scheme visualises an apostate dying a natural death and there is no hint here that he can be killed for his defection. That the verse is addressed to Muslims is borne out by the expression minkum (from among you) and the reference is thus to a Muslim who becomes a renegade. Shaikh Ismā'il Haqqī, in his Rūh al-Bayān, 33 says in respect of this verse: "This contains a warning against apostasy and in it is inducement to revert to Islam, after apostasy, till the time of death." This commentator, therefore, clearly contemplates the period of repentance to be coterminous with the death of the renegade. Zamakhsharī also interprets the verse34 in the sense that it imports the death of the renegade in a state

<sup>33.</sup> Vol. I, pp. 335.

<sup>34.</sup> Al-Sămară'ī, op. cit., pp. 22, 319-26.

of apostasy. The consequences of such apostasy are declared in the verse to be "his deprivation of the fruits of Islam enjoyed by Muslims in this world and falling away of the reward in the Hereafter, due to his continuing in a state of apostasy till death," in the words of Zamakhsharī. This view is also shared by Alūsī Baghdādī<sup>35</sup> and other commentators like al-Qāsimī<sup>36</sup> and al-Nīshāpūrī.<sup>37</sup>

There is difference of opinion among commentators as to whether death in the condition of apostasy is necessary to wash away his good deeds, performed when he was a Muslim, or whether the incidence of apostasy simpliciter would have that effect, and authorities of Imām Shāsi'ī, Imām Abū Hanifah and Imām Mālik are cited in support of opposing views. A further difference of opinion exists on the question whether the thawāb (reward) of his good deeds reverts to him on his return to the true faith subsequently or not. Opinions of Fakhr al-Din Rāzī, al-Ourtubi, al-Tabarasī and al-Alūsī are discussed in this context by al-Sāmarā'i.38 Tabarasī goes to the length of saying that apostasy has the effect of wiping out all actions of the renegade and it is as if those actions had never been, initially. However, Nishapuri commits himself to the view that, among other disadvantages incurred by the renegade, he is to be fought against, till overpowered and then killed. For this extreme view apparently no authority is cited. It is pertinent to observe, however, that fighting with an apostate (who is inclined to fight) is quite different from adjudging an apostate liable to the capital sentence, as soon as apostasy occurs. An anonymous writer in the Daily Zamindar of Lahore, dated 15 October

1924, advanced the wholly unacceptable suggestion anat the words habitat a'mālahum fi'd-dunyā (their actions in this world become null and void) could be equated on the authority of Tafsir Khāzan39 with "they (the apostates) are to be wiped off the surface of the earth." The attempt to shift the consequences of apostasy from actions of the apostate to his person, by a linguistic tour de force, must rank as one of the curiosities of polemical literature. The Tafsir Khāzan, apparently, only categorises the generally accepted consequences of apostasy, according to orthodox tradition, included among them being the penalty of death, in the comment under the word habita, without suggesting an etymological connection between the word and the penalty. Another brave suggestion emanated from an anonymous writer in the Zamindar dated 20 March 1925 that the word fayamit (and he dies) is not inconsistent with other punishments like death being inflicted on him. This must be passed over without comment. Samuel M. Zwemer, in The Law of Apostasy in Islam, 40 categorically asserts that al-Tha'alibī and Razī in their commentaries on the Qur'an uphold the view that this verse, "whatever its grammatical construction may be, demands the death of the apostate." I regret I could not have access to al-Tha'alibi's exegesis but I have studied the comments of Rāzī in his Tafsīr al-Kabīr under this verse and find no warrant for the above conclusion. I suspect that Tha'alibi's comments may also have been misunderstood. Change of faith on the part of a Muslim might entail changes in his civil status as to rights of property or marital status,

<sup>39.</sup> Tafsir Kkāzan, Vol. I, p. 46: Zwemer, The Law of Apostasy in Islam, pp. 34-5.

<sup>40.</sup> PP. 34-5.

etc., but these incidents follow from other nuṣūṣ (texts), and additionally from the fact that this āyah declares all his actions to be null and void. A discussion of those incidents would lead us beyond the confines of our theme and must be reserved for another occasion. But the suggestion that this verse can be stretched to support the death penalty for apostasy is extremely farfetched.

(2) How shall Allah guide a people who disbelieved after their belief and who had borne witness that the Messenger is true and to whom clear proofs had come. And Allah guides not the wrongdoing people.

As for such, their guerdon is that on them rests the curse of Allah and of angels and of men combined.

They shall abide thereunder. Their doom shall not be lightened nor shall they be reprieved;

Save those who afterwards repent and do right. Lo! Allah is Forgiving, Merciful.

Surely those who disbelieve after their (profession of) belief and then increase in disbelief: their repentance will not be accepted. These are they who have gone astray.

As for those who have disbelieved and die while they are disbelievers, the (whole) earth full of gold would not be accepted from any one of them, if it were offered as a ransom (for his soul). Theirs will be a painful doom and they will have no helpers (Ål-i-'Imran, verses 87-92).

Commentators have given varying versions as to the occasion on which these verses were revealed. Ibn Jarīr Ṭabari narrates several such reports in his *Tafsīr Jāmi'* al-Bayān.<sup>41</sup> It is said:

(i) Verse 87 was revealed in connection with the case of Harth

b. Sawaid Anṣārī (or his companion) who had apostatised from Islam but later wanted to revert to the true faith. (This version is also mentioned by Qurṭubī in his al-Jāmi', vide al-Sāmarā'ī's Aḥkām al-Murtadd<sup>42</sup> where the authority of Ibn 'Abbās is cited for iṭ.)

(ii) It was revealed to cover the cases of twelve persons, including Abū  $\bar{A}$  mir the anchorite and the above-mentioned Harth, who became apostates and wanted to return to the fold of Islam.

(iii) This verse and verse 90 have reference to those People of the Scripture who had believed in Prophets like Moses, Jesus and others, but although they had read the prophesies about the Prophet Muhammad in the Torah and the Bible, they refused to acknowledge him as a true Prophet.

(iv) It may also refer to those Muslims who had become

renegades from Islam.

(v) Verse 90 in particular has reference to Jews who knew about the Prophet Muḥammad's advent from their own religious Books but denied him, nevertheless.

 $R\bar{a}z\bar{\imath}$  in his  $Tafs\bar{\imath}r$  al- $Kab\bar{\imath}r^{13}$  has written comprehensively on the subject of its  $sh\bar{a}n$ -i- $nuz\bar{\imath}ul$ . According to the various glosses mentioned by him the following possibilities are open:

(a) The reference to increase in disbelief in verse 91 is intended to convey the idea that the persons concerned persisted and firmly adhered to their denial of

the Prophet with vehement insistence.

(b) Over their first disbelief was superadded another disbelief. Under this head there are also variant traditions. One version is that the People of the Book had known of the Prophet's advent, denied him, and then increased in their disbelief, by active opposition to him and by intriguing against him. Another version confines it to Jews who believed in Moses but declined to accept

<sup>42.</sup> P. 32.

<sup>43.</sup> Vol. II, p. 491.

Jesus and his mission, thus becoming disbelievers. They increased their disbelief by rejecting the Qur'an and the Prophet Muhammad.

(c) This was revealed to cover the case of those Muslims who became apostates and shifted to Mecca. During their stay in Mecca this disbelief was enhanced by their declaration that they would wait for misfortunes to befall the Prophet.

(d) This is intended to refer to persons who had joined the Islamic community as hypocrites and their hypocrisy was described as *kufr* (disbelief) by Allah.

The fact is that the words of the verses are general and would cover the case of Muslims who renounce Islam and then, by insistence on their disbelief, intensify it. As Qurtubi<sup>44</sup> remarks in his al-Jami', various opinions have been given about the subject of these verses but "we conclude from the general nature of the expressions used therein that they are applicable to those Muslims who had defected from Islam and, by insistence on their disbelief, intensified it."

The important thing to note about the contents of these verses is: firstly, that they hold out a promise of God's Grace, if there is genuine repentance on the part of the renegade and that repentance is not limited to any point of time, except that a death-bed repentance would not be acceptable as is expressly declared by the Qur'an elsewhere (see al-Nisa', verse 19); secondly, it is significant that the last of these verses contemplates the natural death of the apostates and there will be awaiting them a painful doom in the Hereafter. There is no suggestion, veiled or otherwise, conveyed by any of these verses that the apostate is to be punished for his disbelief here,

<sup>44.</sup> Al-Sāmarā'ī, op. cit., pp. 29, 30, 32, 39.

during his earthly existence.

(3) On the day when (some) faces will be whitened and (some) faces will be blackened; and as for those whose faces will be black, it will be said unto them: Did you disbelieve after believing? Taste then the punishment because of your disbelief (Āl-i-'Imrān, verse 107).

This clearly implies the negation of punishment till the Day of Reckoning in the Hereafter. Qatādah<sup>45</sup> was of the opinion that this verse applies to apostates, on the authority of a tradition narrated by Abū Hurairah. Qurṭubī also mentions this in his al-Jāmī'.

(4) Those who purchase disbelief, at the price of faith, harm Allah not at all but theirs will be a painful doom (Āl-i-'Imrān, verse 178).

Qurtubī has commented on the authority of Ibn 'Abbās that this applies to those who forsake Islam for disbelief. But no mention is made anywhere of any punishment being inflicted on an apostate, by a mundane tribunal, on the authority of this verse. Indeed the next verse talks of a Divine Plan to allow respite to such people who will increase in disbelief and deserve their doom. That would be a process spread over an undefined period of time.

(5) Those who believe, then disbelieve, and then (again) believe, then disbelieve, and then increase in disbelief, Allah will never pardon them nor will He guide them to the (right) way (al-Nisa', verse 138).

This is a striking pronouncement and almost conclusive against the thesis that an apostate must lose his head immediately after his defection from the faith. The verse visualises repeated apostasies and reversions to the faith, without mention of any punishment for any of these defections on this earth. The act of apostasy must, therefore, be a sin and not a crime. If he had to be killed for his very first defection, he could not possibly have a history of conversions. This interpretation also found favour with Maulana Abu'l-Wafa' Thana' Ullah of Araritsar, a well-known Ahl-i-Hadīth scholar, vide his Islam aur Masihiyyat.<sup>74</sup> The learned author has discussed this verse therein, in conjunction with the relevant Aḥādīth.

Al-Sāmarā'ī48 quotes from Ourtubī the opinion based on the authority of Nihāvah that this verse relates. among others, to Murtaddin (apostates). It is also, incidentally, inconsistent with the theory of repentance being admissible for a fixed period of three days or more (which we will discuss later on) for the words azdadū kufran (increase in disbelief) introduce an element of indefiniteness as regards any such temporal limitations on the chance to reform. The author of Ruh al-Ma'āni49 traces an opinion to Hasan al-Basrī that this verse pertains to a group of people from the Ahl al-Kitab (People of the Book) who decided to create doubts about the religion in the minds of the Companions of the Prophet, by professing faith in their presence, then saying that a doubt had afflicted them, again professing faith, and then again proclaiming that another doubt had

<sup>47.</sup> Pp. 202-4; also  $\widetilde{A}!\overline{u}si$ , op. cit., Vol. III, pp. 199-200, and Ibn Ḥayyān, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 493.

<sup>48.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 29, 30, 32 and 39.

<sup>49.</sup> Vol. V, pp. 153-4.

arisen in their minds and finally persisting in their disbelief till death. History does not record the slaying of any such person for his disbelief, at any stage. Hasan thought this episode was also reflected in the verse: "And a party of the People of the Scripture say: Believe in that which has been revealed unto the believers, at the opening of the day and disbelieve at the end thereof, in order that they may return" (Al-i-'Imrān, verse 73).

(6) The only reward of those who make war upon Allah and His Messenger and strive to create disorder in the land will be that they will be killed or crucified or have their hands and feet, on alternative sides, cut off or will be expelled out of the land. Such will be their degradation in the land and in the Hereafter; theirs will be an awful doom, save those who repent before you overpower them. For know that Allah is Forgiving, Merciful (al-Mā'idah, verses 34-35).

According to Ibn 'Abbās,<sup>50</sup> this verse has relevance to the tribe of Hilāl b. Uwaimar, who were polytheists and who had killed and looted members of the Banī Kanānah when the latter had declared their intention to migrate and accept Islam. He explained that the various punishments mentioned in the verse could be inflicted alternatively to suit the nature of the crime—if it was a case of murder unaccompanied by any other crime, the punishment would be death; if in addition there was robbery or dacoity, the delinquents would be crucified, and if it was a case of deprivation of property alone, the cutting off of the right hand and the left foot

<sup>50.</sup> Tafsir, with al-Suyūṭī, Lubab al-Nuqūl fi Asbūb al-Nuzūl (Urdu translation), Vol. I, pp. 264 et seq.

would be appropriate. In a simple case of intimidation without more, if captured immediately after the crime, the culprits could be imprisoned. If, however, before they are overpowered, the criminals repent, then God Almighty would be Forgiving and Merciful.

Suyūtī in the Lubab al-Nugūl fi Asbāb al-Nuzūl51 and Tabari in the Jami' al-Bavan<sup>52</sup> mention a report from Anas and another from 'Abdur Razzāq who traces it from Abū Hurairah, that this verse was revealed with reference to the people of 'Urinah, who, when ailing, were sent to live with the flock of camels of the Prophet, under the charge of his grazier. They became renegades, brutally killed the grazier and drove away the camels. They were brought back and subjected to the same treatment as they had meted out to the grazier. M. Muhammad Shafi', of the Dar al-'Ulum, Deoband, writing in the Daily Zamindar (Lahore) dated 23 and 24 October 1924, roundly suggested that the verse pertained to persons who became apostates in the Prophet's time and were killed on that account. This is not quite accurate for they had committed the crime of murder with torture and dacoity or robbery as rebels, besides leaving the fold of Islam and the presumption that they were killed for apostasy alone is not consistent with the facts. This incident is also related with all its details in Salulu al-Bukhāri, 53 Fath al-Bāri, 51 'Umdat al-Qāri55 and by the author of  $R\bar{u}h$  al-Ma' $\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ , 56 but the latter prefers

<sup>51.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>52.</sup> Pp. 223-4-

<sup>53.</sup> Na'ib Naqwi and Muhammad 'Alī, Tr., Arabic-Urdu, Vol. III, pp. 555-6.

<sup>54.</sup> Al-'Asqalani, Fath al-Bari, Vol. XI, pp. 91-2.

<sup>55.</sup> Al-'Ainī, 'Umdat al-Qārī, Vol. XI, p. 143.

<sup>56.</sup> Vol. VI, pp. 118-22.

the authoritative report (which is endorsed by al-Tabarasī and on which practically all Fugaha' are agreed, according to him) that the revelation came to cover the case of highwaymen, robbers and dacoits. He points out that the expression "who make war on Allah and His Messenger" is meant to refer to "people who make war against the Muslims," i.e. against the community. He also notices differing opinions as to whether the words Yunfau min al-ard, occurring in the verse, mean "they will be imprisoned" or "they will be banished from the land". Both variants are etymologically possible. He reasons that in the verse it is said that the opportunity for repentance would be gone after they have been overpowered but in the case of Murtaddin, Taubah (repentance) is always possible irrespective of whether they are in the power of the Muslims or not, and consequently he favours the highwaymen version. Hadd (prescribed punishment), he says, once incurred in Islam, does not lapse. He significantly adds that the ground of revelation does not control the meaning of the verse, for the interpretation, as has been acknowledged, is made in accordance with the generality of the expression used and does not rest on the specific occasion for the revelation.57 This principle is referred to with approval by Razi in Tafsīr al-Kabir.58 Zamakhsharī59 and Baidāwī60 also fall into line with others in accepting the application of the verse to highwaymen, free-booters, etc., i.e. active rebels. Rāzī in Tafsīr al-Kabir<sup>61</sup> has recounted all variant opinions under this verse, including those detailed above.

<sup>57.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>58.</sup> Vol. III, p. 407.

<sup>59.</sup> Op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 227 et seq.

<sup>60.</sup> Tafsir on the margin of al-Qur'an al-Hakim (Egypt), p. 114.

<sup>61.</sup> Op. cit., Vol. III, p. 407.

What constitutes Muhāribah (making war), as mentioned in this verse, is also a question on which there exists some controversy. It is noteworthy that in the Qur'an itself, the person who inspired the idea of "Masjid-i-Darār," for creating differences and dissensions among the Muslims (he is said to be one, Abū 'Āmir Rāhib) is referred to, as one who warred against Allah and His Messenger. 62 The identification of this warring opponent with Abu 'Amir is mentioned in al-Durr al-Manthur of al-Suyūti,63 on the authority of Mujāhid. The sinister part played by Abū 'Amir in this episode is described in the Bahr al-Muhit, 61 and it is emphasised therein that he was an active enemy of the Muslims, who had promised to bring soldiers from Rome to fight them. In another part of the same book 65 the dicta of Ibn 'Abbas that Muharibah is Shirk (polytheism) and that of 'Urwah that it is equated with Irtidad (apostasy) are contested and characterised as ghair sahih 'ind al-jamhur—not correct according to the majority of the doctors. The abovementioned writer in the Zamindar has relied upon a saying of Sa'id b. Jabir that Muharibah means disbelief and has further cited the opinion of Ibn Batal from Fath al-Barico (which is a commentary on the Sahih al-Bukhāri) in its support. 'Ainī67 too ascribes an opinion to Bukhārī that by Yuḥāribun Allah is meant disbelievers. 'Ainī himself apparently, while commenting on the dictum in the Hidāyah that an apostate is a Ḥarbi (fighter),68

<sup>62.</sup> Sürah Taubah, verse 107.

<sup>63.</sup> Vol. III, p. 276.

<sup>64.</sup> Vol. V, p. 98.

<sup>65.</sup> Vol. III, p. 471.

<sup>66.</sup> Vol. XI, pp. 91-2.

<sup>67.</sup> Op. cit., Vol. XI, pp. 143-4.

<sup>68.</sup> Ibid.

says that this classification is correct as he is neither a Dhimmi nor a Musta'min. This process of elimination ignores the fact that there can be a third category of disbelievers—Mu'āhids—people with whom there is a pact of mutual defence. But Baidawi and Alūsi give the root meaning of harb as as-salab or as as-salab wa'l-akhz, i.e. forcible deprivation or seizure of property. Etymologically, therefore, the equation of Muhāribah with disbelief or apostasy has not much to commend itself. Its identification with these two phenomena probably has its genesis in an insufficient appreciation of relevant historical facts. In this context it may be useful to remember the Divine injunction: "Whosoever kills a human being for other than manslaughter or corruption in the earth, it shall be as if he had killed all mankind" (al-Mā'idah, verse 33).

Muslim scholars in recent times have expressly declared that disbelief by itself does not justify killing of the disbeliever but that there must be superadded thereto an element of either war against Muslims or enmity against them or creation of circumstances which make their profession of the faith a trial for them, to justify such action. Shaikh Maḥmūd Shaltūt has forcefully expressed himself on this point in his book al-Islām, 'Aqīdah wa Sharī'ah.69 He has also reiterated his opinion in connection with the interpretation of the verse: "And end not the life that Allah has made sacred, save in the course of justice" (al-An'ām, verse 152), in his Tafsīr.70 Al-Sāmarā'ī' has marshalled other authorities in support of this position—notably those of Ibn Daqīq

<sup>69.</sup> pp. 300-1.

<sup>70.</sup> Tafsir al-Qur'an al-Hakim, p. 427.

<sup>71.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 115-6.

cited from his Ahkām al-Ahkām Sharh Umdat al-Ahkām and San'ani (quoted from his Fi al-'Iddah 'alā al-Alikām al-Ahkām).

The Ahnaf and the Imamiyyah, in contrast with other schools of thought, further differentiate between male and female apostates and hold that female apostates are not to be killed but only imprisoned, on the ground that they are not capable of fighting actively. The subject will be found discussed adequately by al-Samara'i72 in Ahkām al-Murtadd, wherein the relevant authorities are cited. Reference in this connection may also be made to al-Mughni<sup>73</sup> by Ibn Oudamah, Mugaddamah<sup>74</sup> by Ibn Rushd, Fath al-Bari, 75 'Umdat al-Qari, 76 Fath al-Qadir, 77 Hidāyah, 78 and 'Ināyah, 79 wherein instances of the Prophet forbidding the killing of women for their lack of fighting capacity, are mentioned and the view is upheld that the slaying of a person is grounded on hirab (fighting or active enmity) and not merely on change of faith. In the early years of Islam, the fact that persons who defected from the religion also joined the enemy groups may have obscured the distinction between peaceful renegades and apostates who actively opposed the faithful. Chalpiso in his comments on Fath al-Oadir cites Ibn al-Hammam's opinion that "there is no punishment for the act of apostasy, for its punishment is greater than that, with God." This is an extremely significant comment, in harmony with the letter and spirit of the Qur'anic text.

<sup>72.</sup> Ibid., pp. 213 et seq.

<sup>73.</sup> Vol. VIII, p. 123.

<sup>74.</sup> Vol. I, p. 371.

<sup>75.</sup> Vol. VIII, p. 223.

<sup>76.</sup> Vol. XI, pp. 232-9.

<sup>77-80.</sup> Sharh Fath al-Qadir 'ala al-Hidayah Sharh Badayah and on its margin, Sharh al-Inayah 'ala al-Hidayah with commentary by Chalpi on Fath al-Qadir, Vol. IV, pp. 388-9.

(7) O ye who believe! whoso of you becomes a renegade from his religion, (know that in his stead) Allah will bring a people whom He loves and who love Him, humble towards believers, stern towards disbelievers, striving in the way of Allah, and fearing not the blame of any blamer. Such is the grace of Allah, which He gives unto whom He will. Allah is All-Embracing, All-Knowing (al-Mā'idah, verse 55).

Al-Sāmarā'ī<sup>81</sup> has collected opinions of exegetists like al-Ṭabarī, al-Nīshāpūrī, al-Qurṭubī, al-Zamakhsharī, al-Rāzī, and al-Ṭabarasī, on the interpretation of this verse. Their opinions may be summed up by saying that the verse embodies a warning and a prophecy. The warning conveyed was that apostasy would not affect Divine purposes in the least. The prophecy foreshadowed the apostasy of several tribes on the death of the Prophet and gave the glad tidings that they would be replaced by God-loving and God-loved, true Muslims. The main inference derivable from the verse is that there is no punishment for apostasy to be enforced in this world, for such human aberrations cannot frustrate God's purposes.

(8) Whoso disbelieves in Allah after he has believed —save him who is forced thereto and whose heart is still content with faith—but such as open their breasts to disbelief: on them is wrath from Allah. Theirs will be an awful doom (al-Nahl, verse 107).

The only punishment mentioned for apostasy in this verse is postponed to the Hereafter. Al-Sāmarā'ī<sup>82</sup> in his

<sup>81.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 23-8.

<sup>82.</sup> Ibid., pp. 30-1.

comment on this verse has quoted from Qurtubi's al-Jami' the remark that the verse conveys an admonition that the wrath of Allah will be incurred by the apostate but there is no hint of any other punishment. Dr Samuel M. Zewmer's<sup>83</sup> conjecture that commentators derive justification for the death penalty from this verse read with verse 218, al-Baqarah, is fanciful. The mere fact that in the Tafsir Khūzan, the various disabilities (including the death sentence) to which an apostate is subject, according to the orthodox view, are categorised under verse 218 of al-Baqarah, cannot support this view, as Dr Zwemer seems to imagine.

(9) And among mankind is he who worships Allah on a narrow marge. Then if good befalls him, he is content therewith, but if a trial befalls him, he returns to his (former) way. He loses both this world and the Hereafter. That is a manifest loss (al-Hajj, verse 12).

Qurtubi, 84 in his al-Jāmī, records that according to some exegetists this verse was revealed with reference to some Arabs who had accepted Islam and adhered to the faith as long as they enjoyed ease and comfort, but as soon as they encountered hardship, they became renegades. Another report links it with the case of al-Nadr b. al-Hārith and still another connects it with that of Shībah b. Rabī'ah who apostatised in circumstances similar to those mentioned above. There is no historical evidence forthcoming that any such person or persons were executed for their defection from the faith.

(10) Those who disbelieve and hinder (men) from

<sup>83.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 34-5.

<sup>84.</sup> Vide al-Samara'i, op. cit., p. 31.

the way of Allah and oppose the Messenger, after the guidance has become manifest to them, hurt Allah not a jot, and He will make their actions fruitless (Muḥammad, verse 33).

Al-Sāmarā'i<sup>85</sup> observes that this verse may possibly be in respect of disbelievers or may concern apostates as the context shows that both possibilities are open. This verse too never appears to have been invoked in support of the death penalty for apostasy. The Sūrah "Muḥammad" starts with a declaration that Allah renders the actions of disbelievers and of those who oppose Allah vain. In the 5th verse of the Sūrah, Muslims are enjoined to fight the disbelievers vigorously when they meet them in regular battle, till such time as "the war lays down its burdens". This means that war is permitted only to ensure peace and not for aggression.

(11) O Prophet! strive hard against the disbelievers and the hypocrites and be stern with them. Their resort is Hell, a hapless journey's end (al-Taḥrīm, verse 10).

These words are identical with those of Sūrah "Taubah" (verse 73). This text by no means justifies the killing of a Murtadd (apostate) or a Munāfiq (hypocrite), wantonly, unless there is resort to war on their part. The word Jāhid occurring in these two verses does not necessarily mean "taking up arms". An earnest effort would be as much within the scope of its connotations as war. In the Fath al-Bayān<sup>86</sup> we have the following comment on these words:

Tabari has said: The opinion to be given preference, according

<sup>85.</sup> Ibid., p. 33.

<sup>86.</sup> Vol. IV, p. 134.

to me, is that contained in the statement of Ibn Mas'ad that Jihād means the exercise of vigorous effort. The āyah implies that Jihād against the hypocrites is sanctioned but there is no specification of its nature in the verse. It is, therefore, necessary to resort to other guidance. Detailed reasoning has established that Jihād against disbelievers is to be with the sword and against the hypocrites by adducing of arguments against them at one time, abandoning kindness towards them at another time and sacrifice on another occasion, and this is what Ibn Mas'ūd says.

The treatment of hypocrites constitutes a very instructive chapter of Islamic polity. That the character of their professed belief and their identity was known is patent from several verses of the Qur'an. A study of the following, among others, would be rewarding, in this context:

- (a) And of mankind are some who say: We believe in Allah and the Last Day, when they believe not (al-Baqarah, verse 9).
- (b) And when they fall in with those who believe, they say: We believe, but when they go apart with their devils (ringleaders) they declare: Lo! we are with you; verily we did but mock. Allah Himself doth mock them, leaving them to wander blindly on, in their contumacy (al-Baqarah, verses 15-16).
- (c) And when they fall in with those who believe, they say: We believe. But when they meet one another in private, they say: Prate ye to them of that which Allah hath disclosed to you that they may contend with you before your Lord concerning it. Have ye then no sense? Are they then unaware that Allah knoweth that which they keep hidden and that which they proclaim? (al-Bagarah, verses 77-78).
  - (d) And a party of the People of the Scripture say:

Declare your belief (outwardly) in that which has been revealed to the believers in the early part of the day and disbelieve in the latter part thereof; perchance they may return (Al-i-'Imran, verse 73).

The persons described in this verse were well known. according to several commentators of the Qur'an. Reference in this connection may be made to Bahr al-Muhit, 87 Ruh al-Ma'ānī,88 Durr al-Manthur,89 and Fath al-Bavān,90 among others. The first two cite reports that the verse has relevance to twelve leaders of the Jews of Khaibar and of 'Urwah or that it related to Ka'b b. Ashraf, the Iew, and his companions. The Bahr al-Muhit also gives an alternative version<sup>91</sup> that the Jews resented the change of Oiblah (the direction in which Muslims face during prayer) from Bait al-Muqaddas to the Ka'bah, and Ka'b b. Ashraf and his companions said: Pray in the same direction as they do in the morning and revert to the direction of the Dome of the Rock in the latter part of the day. This verse was then revealed. In either case the identity of the people in question was not in doubt and we have it from the author of Bahr al-Muhit that this conspiracy was actually acted upon. As has been noticed earlier. Hasan al-Basri has also talked of a similar hypocritical group in the context of al-Nisā' (verse 138). The existence of these hypocrites continued to be tolerated within the body politic of Islam without physical interference with them.

(e) What aileth you that you are become two parties

<sup>87.</sup> Vol. II, p. 493.

<sup>88.</sup> Vol. III, pp. 199-200.

<sup>89.</sup> Vol. II, pp. 42-3 (quoted by M. Sher 'Alī).

<sup>90.</sup> Vol. II, p. 60.

<sup>91.</sup> Vol. II, p. 493.

regarding the hypocrites? And Allah has cast them back (to disbelief) because of what they earned? Seek ye to guide him whom Allah hath sent astray? He whom Allah sendeth astray, for him thou (O Muḥammad) canst not find a road.

They long that you should disbelieve even as they disbelieve, that you may be upon a level (with them). So choose not friends from them till they emigrate in the way of Allah; if they turn back (to enmity) then take them and kill them wherever ye find them, and choose no friend nor helper from among them;

Except those who seek refuge with a people between whom and you there is a covenant, or (those who) come unto you because their hearts forbid them to make war on you or make war on their own folk. Had Allah willed He could have given them power over you so that assuredly they would have fought you. So if they hold aloof from you and wage not war against you and offer you peace, Allah allows you no war against them.

You will find others who desire that they should have security from you and security from their own folk. So often as they are returned to hostility they fall headlong into it. If they keep not aloof from you nor offer you peace nor hold their hands, then take them and kill them wherever you find them. Against these We have given you clear authority (al-Nisa', verses 89-92).

It is plain that even these verses do not permit aggression against hypocrites. If they are peaceful, no action can be taken against them. It is only if they adopt open hostility that they are to be engaged in combat and killed. Only an unfair critic, like Dr Zwemer, could have suggested, as he does, by quoting only a part

of the verse that they furnish proof of lack of toleration and absence of personal liberty in Muslim Law.<sup>92</sup> Apparently Majid Khadduri<sup>93</sup> sees in this verse authority for the death penalty in a case of apostasy—an impossible position in the whole context.

- (f) Lo! Allah will gather hypocrites and disbelievers, all together into Hell (al-Nisa', verse 141).
- (g) Lo! the hypocrites (will be) in the lowest deep of the fire and thou shalt find no helper for them (al-Nisā', verse 146).

These two verses place the hypocrites on a lower level than unbelievers or at least equate them in respect of tortures in the Hereafter. It is not, therefore, that for the hypocrites there is a soft corner in the Our anic scheme and, because of it, their peaceful aberrations are to be ignored. The guiding principle is clearly the necessity of a free choice in matters of conscience. Because of their hypocrisy, however, the Prophet is directed to tell them that they will not be permitted to participate in Jihād, in the company of Muslims (al-Taubah, verse 83). In avah 54 of Surat "al-Taubah" they are described as those "who disbelieve in Allah and His Messenger." In verse 56 of that Surah, it is clarified that, despite their oaths to the contrary, "they are not of you" and, in verse 84, the Prophet is forbidden to pray for any one of them if he dies, or to stand by his grave, "for they disbelieved in Allah and His Messenger and died while they were disobedient." So they are to be denied the blessings of the Prophet's prayer for them, but otherwise

<sup>92.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 33-4.

<sup>93.</sup> Op. cit., pp. 149-52.

they are left to die their natural deaths. Their delinquency is such that the Prophet is told (verse 80) that even if forgiveness is asked for them seventy times, they will not be pardoned by Allah as they were disbelievers. That their position is not different from that of Murtaddin is borne out by verse 74 of that Surah— "They swear by Allah that they said nothing (wrong), vet they did utter the word of disbelief and disbelieved after their (acceptance of) Islam and they purposed that which they could not attain and they cherished enmity (against believers) only that Allah by His Messenger should enrich them of His bounty." Ibn Hisham records in his "Life of the Prophet" that this verse was revealed in respect of Jalas b. Suwaid b. Samit who did not accompany the Prophet for the expedition to Tabak. and made a disparaging remark about the Prophet. When taxed with it, he denied on oath that he had said anything. Apparently no punishment was awarded to him. Other hypocrites are specifically named by Ibn Hisham and he even links their cases with certain verses of the Our'an. They all remained free from punishment. In verse 66 also, it is proclaimed that they disbelieved after having believed. The opening verses of the Surat al-Munafigin declare that the hypocrites' proclamation of faith is false and "they have made their oaths a cloak, thus to hinder (men) from the path of Allah." In the fourth verse of that Sūrah, it is clearly stated that they first believed and then disbelieved. But no one smote their necks on that account.

Indirect support is also provided for freedom or conscience in the Divine Scheme by the various recitals

<sup>94.</sup>  $\mathit{Sirat}_i$  Urdu translation by M. Qutb-ud-Dīu Mjmad Maḥmādī, Vol. II (sp. 203-5).

in the Our'an to the effect that it was the disbelievers in the communities to which various Prophets were sent, who threatened to banish the Messenger of God from their lands, unless they reverted to their faith. Instances in point are of the people of Shu'aib (al-A'raf, verse 89) and of the Pharaoh threatening sorcerers with torture for daring to believe in "the Lord of Moses and Aaron," without asking for his permission (al-Shu'arā', verse 50). It is stated generally in verse 14 of Sürah "Ibrāhim": "And those who disbelieved said to their Messengers: We will surely expel you from our land, unless you return to our religion. Then their Lord sent unto them the revelation: We will surely destroy the wrongdoers." Such coercion or persecution could not be, therefore, commendable in the eye of God. The chief of the hypocrites in the Prophet's own time was 'Abdullah b. Ubayy b. Salūl, and history has recorded that he was not killed despite permission to do so being asked of the Prophet by no less a person than 'Abdullah's own son, who was a good Muslim.95 He had by his perfidious conduct given offence to Muslims on several occasions, but his life was spared.

The position that emerges, after a survey of the relevant verses of the Qur'ān, may be summed up by saying that not only is there no punishment for apostasy provided in the Book but that the Word of God clearly envisages the natural death of the apostate. He will be punished only in the Hereafter. The Qur'ān also visualises the possibility of repeated apostasies by a person, thus negativing the justification or necessity of enforcing the punishment of death on a person who declines to revert to Islam within a limited time, on his very first lapse.

Ibn Hayyan, a well-known exegetist, has expressly mentioned a definite opinion that no apostate can be coerced into rejoining the Muslim community. In fact, apostasy is treated as a sin and not as a crime by the Our'an, albeit a very grave sin, but the time for repentance is extended, in God's infinite Mercy, to a lifetime short of the actual death agony. For God's purposes cannot be defeated by defections from the Faith of puny mortals, and so the Prophet is enjoined not to worry his soul out, in grief, for those who turn away. He is forbidden to force them to the straight path, for this would interfere with the Divine Scheme of life here being a trial for the human soul. It is repeatedly emphasised that his function is to convey the Message fully and leave the rest to God. The Din is to be established by goodly exhortation and not by threat of force. The Our'an itself places hypocrites on a par with apostates but, in their case, history bears out a most humane and liberal policy of tolerance on the part of the Prophet. Violence is permitted to Muslims only against those who fight them or persecute them or spread disorder in the land and mere change of faith, provided the conversion is peaceful, is not actionable at all, in this phenomenal world. An essential element for force being permitted against a person is active hostility on his part and that is why some schools of thought among Muslims exempt women (who from their very nature are presumed to be incapable of bearing arms) and others who may be regarded as disabled, from the punishment for apostasy. The Our'an includes a unique charter of liberty of conscience for mankind.

# Chapter II

#### APOSTASY AND THE SUNNAH

#### Section I

Before taking up the specific Ahadith (traditions) which are relied upon by the proponents of the death sentence for apostasy, it would be useful to clear the ground by a few observations concerning the relative positions of the Qur'an and the Hadith. Imam Shafi'i in his al-Risālah<sup>1</sup> has clearly enunciated the principle that the commandments contained in the Qur'an can be abrogated only by another verse of the Qur'an and not by any authority lower in status. He holds definitely that the Sunnah of the Prophet cannot perform any such abrogating function vis-a-vis the Qur'an, for it is itself subject to the Book of God in respect of all clear and well-defined Our'anic texts (Nusus). Of course, he says, it can interpret, explain or expound, with subsidiary details, the summary commandments included in the Our'an. In support of his position, Shafi'i cites the verse of the Our an:

And when Our Clear revelations are recited unto them, they who look for the meeting with Us, say: Bring a Qur'ān other than this or change it. Say (O Muḥammad): It is not for me to change it of my own accord. I only follow that which is revealed to me. Lo! if I disobey my Lord, I fear the retribution of an awful day (Yūnus, verse 16).

He also draws strength for his argument from verse

<sup>1</sup> Urdu translation by M. Amjad 'Ali, pp. 97 et seq.

#### Apostasy and the Sunnah

107 of Sūrat al-Baqarah: "Whatever revelation We abrogate or cause to be forgotten We bring (in its place) one better or the like thereof. Knowest thou not Allah is able to do all things?"

It is thus Allah alone Who can change what has emanated from Him and, considering the fundamental position of the Qur'an in Islam, this stands to reason.

Maulānā Badr-i-'Alam Nadvī in his Tarjumān al-Sunnah<sup>2</sup> says, on the authority of extracts from Imam Shātibi's ai-Muwāfagāt, that the Sunnah occupies a place of secondary importance as compared with the Book of God and that generally it can be asserted firmly that the Sunnah cannot be placed on the same level with the Qur'an in point of regard and reverence. This is the reason why Taftazānī in his Talwili³ lays it down as a guiding principle that in case of conflict with the text of the Our'an, Khabar al-Wahid (a tradition related by one person from another individual or by one person from a group or by a group from one person, so long as the number of narrators is less than those in the case of Hadith Mash-hur [reputed tradition]) will be rejected. Such a hadith is said to be only Mufid-i-Zann (as raising only a presumption).

In the fourth chapter of Hujjat-Allāh al-Bālighah,<sup>4</sup> Part I. Shāh Walī Ullāh has categorised the extant compilations of traditions in their order of reliability and importance. He thinks that only al-Muwaṭṭā' of Imām Mālik, Ṣaḥāḥ Bukhārī and Ṣaḥāḥ Muslim deserve to be placed in the first category. The compilations like those of Abū Dāwūd, Tirmidhī, Ibn Mājah and Nasā'ī, which

<sup>2.</sup> Vol. I, pp. 118 et seq.

<sup>3.</sup> Pp. 229-31.

<sup>4.</sup> Urdu translation by M. 'Abdur Rahīm, Vol. I, pp. 219-28.

are generally included among the Sihāh Sittah (the Six Accurate Books) and Musnad of Imam Ahmad, he assigns to the second category. He adds that the Muhaddithin (Experts in Tradition) consider these two categories only to be worthy of reliance and not the books falling in the third and fourth categories such as Musnad of Abi 'Ali, Muşannaf of 'Abd-ur-Razzāq, Muşannaf of Abī Bakr b. Abī Shaibah, Musnad of 'Abd b. Hamīd, Musnad of Tavālīsī, and books by Baihagī, Tahāvī, Tabarānī, Ibn Habban, Ibn 'Adī, Khatīb, Abī Nu'aim, Ibn al-'Asākir, Khwārazmī, Ibn Najjār, Dailamī, and others. There are also fabricated Ahadith, collected and criticised by Mulla 'Alī Qārī and Ibn al-Jauzī among others. Traditions themselves are differentiated inter se in order of authenticity and reliability. In point of priority they are designated as Mutawatir (continuous) Mustafid (narrated in several ways and accepted), Mash-hūr (reputed), Saḥīḥ (accepted as correct) and Hasan (approved), and the lowest tier in this hierarchy is that of Khabar Ahad. The number and reliability of the chain of narrators, its continuity or otherwise, evidence of implementation or rejection, conformity with the Qur'anic letter or spirit as well as with known historical or rational facts, are some of the factors which determine this order of priority. The human factor of lapse of memory or of failure to comprehend fully the circumstances surrounding a tradition is also a pertinent consideration. The classical instance of Hadrat 'A'veshah, the Prophet's wife, correcting Ibn 'Umar (or according to one version, Hadrat 'Umar, the Second Caliph, himself) in respect of his opinion that the lamentations of a deceased person's

<sup>5.</sup> Ibid., Vol. I, p. 655, and M. Sher 'Alī, Qatl-i-Murtadd aur Islām, pp. 100-1.

#### Apostasy and the Sunnah

relatives entail torture in the after-life for the dead person is very apt in this context. Hadrat 'A'yeshah's comment was that the hadith had not been properly understood or recollected. She explained that in fact the Prophet had passed by a Jewish woman who had died, and had seen her relatives lamenting, when he observed: "They are crying and she is being subjected to torture." It was wrongly assumed that there was a casual nexus between the two sentences uttered by the Prophet, and she cited the Qur'an: "No bearer of burden can bear the burden of another" (al-An'am, verse 165). She evidently invoked the principle that a hadith could not possibly contradict a clear text of the Our'an and interpreted the reported tradition in its light. Shah Wali Allah too in his 'Iqd al-Jid lays down the principle that Sunnah only explains the Qur'an and can never contradict it.6

#### Section II

(1) The principal hadith on which the case for the death sentence for apostasy is built up is the one narrated by Ibn 'Abbās in the words: "Whosoever changes his religion, slay him." This is the version given by Bukhārī in his Ṣaḥiḥ—"Kitāb al-Jihād fī Istitābat al-Murtaddīn". To it is annexed the story of Ḥadrat 'Alī burning to death a number of Zanādiqah (heretics), and Ibn 'Abbās, on being informed of the incident, is stated to have remarked that he would not have burnt them but merely killed them, for the Prophet had forbidden the burning of human beings. He then recited this hadith.

<sup>6.</sup> Quoted in Fihr-o-Nazar, September 1971, p. 195.

The same hadith is also traced to Hadrat 'A'yeshah by al-Tabarānī in his Mu'jamat al-Wast. According to another narrator, Mu'āwiyah b. Hīdah, as recorded in al-Tabarānī's Mu'jamat al-Kabīr, the full hadīth should read: "Whosoever changes his faith, slay him. Verily Allah does not accept repentance from His servant who has adopted disbelief after having accepted Islam." The latter part of this version apparently contradicts the Qur'ānic texts, which we have already noticed, and is unreliable.

Al-Sāmaiā'i8 reproduces this hadīth from Sunan al-Nasā'i (Sharh al-Suvūtī) and observes that many jurisconsults have accepted its authority, but there is a good deal of difference between them as to its meaning. Imam Shāfi'ī and Ibn Hazm are reported to have expressed the view that the words of the hadith being general, it would apply even to a disbeliever who changes his faith. On the contrary, the majority of the jurisconsults and Imam Malik held the opinion that it is confined to Muslims who become renegades from Islam. It is pointed out that the logical result of the first view would lead to the absurd proposition that even a disbeliever who adopts Islam ought to be killed for his change of faith. Consequently the hadith, according to better opinion, cannot be interpreted in its literal sense and is susceptible of an obvious limitation to Muslims. It is also argued in favour of the second group that, according to another hadith, all disbelievers, whatever variety of faiths they may profess, constitute a single community (Millat al-Wahidah) and consequently change from one form of

<sup>7.</sup> Al-Zaila'ī, Nașb al-Rāyah li-Ahādith al-Hidāyah, Vol. III, Chapter Ahham al-Murtaddin''.

<sup>8.</sup> Aḥkām al-Murtadd, pp. 36-8, 211-22.

#### Apostasy and the Sunnah

Japipagip to another would not alter their position vis-a-vis Islam and could not be regarded as a change of faith, in the real sense.

None of these sources, however, indicates the circumstances which provided the occasion for this qauli (verbal) hadith. On the face of it, the hadith is mujmal—a summary statement—and calls for futher elucidation.

Difference of opinion prevails among Doctors of Law as to whether it applies to a woman apostate or not. Al-Samara'ı mentions that Imam Malik, al-Auza'ı, Imam al-Shafi'i and al-Laith b. Sa'd accepted this hadith as sufficient authority for killing a Muslim woman who leaves the fold of Islam, having regard to the general nature of the expressions used therein. However, al-Thauri, Imam Abu Hanifah and his followers, Ibn Shabramah, Ibn 'Aliyyah, 'Ata' and al-Hasan excluded women from its scope. Their argument was that Ibn 'Abbas, the principal narrator of the hadith, had himself declared that a female apostate should not be killed, 10 as the Prophet had forbidden the slaying of women in wars. The Shāfi is, the Hanbalis, the Zaidis and the Mālikis place men and women on the same footing, in this respect, but the Hanafis and the Imamiyyah Shi'ahs say that the woman will be imprisoned till she repents. Sarakhsi, among the Ahnāf, apparently took the view that a woman who was possessed of sound judgment and capacity to give orders can also be condemned to death for apostasy, though, normally, she would be immune from that sentence. Al-Samara'i has dealt with the question at length, in Alikam al-Murtadd. Other authorities too

<sup>9.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>10.</sup> Ibid.

have pointedly referred to this exemption. The Maliki Ibn al-Qudamah, in his al-Mughni, says that a Muharibah woman is not to be killed but only imprisoned. 12

There are other recognised exceptions that still further restrict the scope of this tradition. Dr Muhammad Hamidullah, in his Muslim Conduct of State, has summarised the position in these words: "In case an insane person, a delirious, a melancholy, a perplexed man, a minor one intoxicated or who had declared his faith in Islam under coercion and a person whose faith in Islam has not been known or established, were to become appearate, they would not suffer the supreme penalty. So too, an apostate woman and a hermaphrodite, accordmy to the Banast school of Law, would not be condemonst to death but imprisoned and even physically tortured. An old man from whom no offspring is expected it also excepted."12 In support of this statement he refere to Katam, Budā'i', VII, 134; Sarakhsī, Mabsaf, X, 122 s Ion 'Abidin, Radd al-Muhtar, III, 246 and 326-71; Abb Yooui, Kharaj, p. 111; Sarakhsī, Sharh al-Uşūl, Chapter "al-juz' Yalhaqat al-Takdhīb." These exempthem also find mention in various chapters of Ahham al-Muriada by al-Samara'i. The Fath al-Bari too adverts to two exceptions, viz. of a hypocrite and one forced to the faith.14

If then the accepted position be that the hadith is not to be taken literally and is subject to several qualifications and the circumstances in which the relevant

<sup>11.</sup> At-'Ainī, 'Umdat al-Qāri, Vol. XIII, p. 232; at-'Asqalānī, Fath al-Bārī, Vol. 11, p. 23, Vol. XIII, pp. 220-8; and Hidāyah ma' al-Kifāyah, Vol. 11, pp. 299 et seq.

<sup>12. 3</sup>rd edn., Vol. VIII, p. 33.

<sup>13. 5</sup>th edn., pp. 172 et seq.

<sup>14.</sup> Vol. II, p. 23; Vol. XII, pp. 220-8.

#### Apostasy and the Sunnah

words were uttered by the Prophet are not precisely known, would it be too much to take the next step and suggest that there is also underlying the hadith a tacit assumption that the person concerned must be guilty of Muhārabah (active hostility)? This would have the merit of bringing the purport of the hadith into conformity with verse 34 of Sūrat al-Ma' dah: "The only reward of those who wage war against A lah and His Messenger and strive to create disorder in the land, is that they may be slain or crucified...."

That this suggestion is not a novel one would be borne out by what several Doctors of Law have already indicated as the basis for the death penalty in their writings. In the Hidāyah, Marghinānī, while discussing the question whether it is necessary to allow time for repentance to an apostate or not,15 says: "And for us there is the word of God, 'Kill the polytheists...' without restriction as to time for repentance and so also is the saving of the Prophet (on him be peace): 'Whosoever changes his faith, slay him,' and that is because he is a Kāfir harbī (a disbeliever and active rebel) whom the call has reached. He would, therefore, be killed instantly without time being allowed for repentance...." It is clear that Marghinani's analysis establishes the effective cause of the supreme penalty to be active hostility or rebellion. This opinion is further elaborated and confirmed in the Mabsut,16 the Bahr al-Ra'iq,17 the Fath al-Oadir and by the commentaries of Chalpi and Babarti. 18 It is explained in these books that the exemption in

<sup>15.</sup> Vol. II, Bab "Ahkam al-Murtaddin," pp. 200 et seq.

<sup>16.</sup> Sarakhsī, al-Mabsūt, Vol. X, pp. 98-124.

<sup>17.</sup> Ibn Nujaim al-Misrī, Bahr al-Rā'iq, Vol. V, p. 139.

<sup>18.</sup> Fath al-Qadir, 'alā al-Hidāyah with 'Ināyah of al-Bābartī, and marginal comments of al-Chalpī, Vol. IV, pp. 288-9.

favour of a woman is grounded on the fact that she is incapable of bearing arms, normally. Further, it is said that disbelief intrinsically does not justify condemnation to death and that is the genesis of the rule that the blind and the very old will not be killed. A woman apostate may, however, be slain, if she possesses independent judgment and has a following. Zaila'i in his commentary on the Kanz al-Daqā'iq^10 says explicitly: "The reference in the hadīth is to one who fights against us..." Marghinānī too observes in the Hidāyah<sup>20</sup> that the punishments are postponed to the Hereafter, as their acceleration (and implementation in this world) would interfere with the significance of trial and testing (in this life). This view will be reinforced when we consider the various versions of the next tradition to be discussed.

Among other reasons given by him for doubting the authenticity of the hadith under discussion, Nawāb A'zam Yār Jang²¹ (Maulvī Charāgh 'Alī) mentions that there is a gap between 'Ikramah and Ibn 'Abbās and again between the latter and the Prophet, in the chain of narrators. This may not perhaps appeal to many as a solid ground for rejection of the hadith which figures in several well-known compilations. But an alternative approach has been to interpret the word uqtalūhu (kill him) occurring in the hadīth, not literally, but figuratively, and precedents are cited in support of this suggestion. When the Banī Isrā'il had taken to the worship of the calf, according to the well-known narrative in the Qur'ān (Sūrat al-Baqarah), Moses advised them 'to turn to

<sup>19.</sup> Sharlı al-Zaila'i 'alā Kanz al-Daqā'iq, Vol. III, p. 285.

<sup>20.</sup> See note 18.

<sup>21.</sup> Proposed Political, Legal and Social Reforms under Muslim Rule-A'zan al-Kalām fi Irtiqā' al-Islām: Urdu translation by M. 'Abdul Ḥaqq, pp. 86 et seq.

their Maker" and added "fagtulu anfusakum" which may mean, if taken literally, "kill yourselves," but has been interpreted by some commentators as an admonition to kill their evil passions. Reference may be made in this connection, inter alia, to Bahr al-Muhit.22 Again, on the Prophet's death on the day of Thaqifah, when there was a gathering of the Ansar, at which the chief of the Khazraj named Sa'd set himself up as a candidate for the Caliphate, Hadrat 'Umar is said to have called out "Uqtaln as-Sa'd, aqtalahu Allah." In this sentence the word ugtalu which literally means "kill" has been construed as meaning "treat him as if he is dead and do not advert to what he says," in the Agrab al-Mawarid and the Nihayah of Ibn al-Kathir. The same authorities assign a similar meaning to the word ugtalu occurring in the hadith: "If two Caliphs have obtained allegiance (from the people), treat one of them as if he is dead (ugtalu), and ignore his claim." One of the meanings assigned to the expression gatl al-nafs in the Mufradat by Imam Raghib Isfahani is "killing the base passions".

But this line of reasoning may not be apt, if a variant of this hadith as given by Imām Mālik in his Muwatṭā' (Chapter headed "al-Qaḍā' fi man Artadda an al-Islām") is read with it.23 The wording therein given is: Man ghayyara dinahu faḍribu unuqahū'—"Whosoever changes his faith, smite his neck." These words are not equivocal and would not leave room for any metaphorical construction. But Imām Mālik adds the comment after giving the ḥadīth that if a Muslim adopts another creed but conceals his disbelief and professes Islam out-

<sup>22.</sup> Ibn Hayyan, Bahr al-Muhît, Vol. I, p. 269.

<sup>23.</sup> Imām Māhk b. Anas al-Asbahī, Muwaṇā' (Egypt, 1339 н.), Part II, p. 165.

wardly, then, on proof of his guilt, he shall be slain, without opportunity for repentance being conceded to him, on the ground that such people cannot be trusted. The opportunity to repent, according to him, would be valid only in the case of one who openly adopts another faith, after having accepted Islam. This opinion, with all respect for the high status, piety and learning of Imam Malik, one may venture to suggest, would apparently be inconsistent with the treatment meted out to known hypocrites during the Prophet's time and to the hadith according to which the Prophet had chided Usamah b. Zaid on his admission that he had killed a man of the Juhainah tribe in combat, even after he had recited the Kalimah (Declaration of Faith). Usāmah pleaded that the man had done so merely to save his life and the Prophet queried: "Did you dissect his heart and look into it?" The tradition is included in Sahih al-Bukhāri<sup>24</sup> as well as in Sahih al-Muslim and Mishkāt al-Masābih25 of Shaikh Walī al-Dīn Muhammad b. 'Abdullāh Khatīb 'Umrī, with slight variations.

The fact that this *hadith* exists in a verbally different version, though carrying the same sense, may perhaps justify the criticism that narrators may have retained what they understood to be the purport of the tradition and may have failed to recollect the exact words and the full circumstances surrounding the origin of the saying. This consideration may be allowed to fortify the attempt at its reconciliation with the Qur'anic text by evocation of its underlying assumption that the person involved

<sup>24.</sup> Ṣaḥiḥ al-Bukkāri, Urdu translation (with Arabic text) by S. Nā'ib Ḥusain Naqwī and M. Muḥammad 'Alī, Vol. III, p. 579.

<sup>25.</sup> Mishkāt al-Maṣābiḥ, Urdu translation (with Arabic text) by S. Nā'ib Ḥusain Naqwī and M. Muḥammad 'Alī, Vol. II, p. 10.

must have joined those warring against the Muslims. This indeed is the approach of Maulana Thana' Ullah to this hadith and the hadith to be considered next, in Islām aur Masihiyyat.26 He observes that Islam as a polity had to fight for its existence and these two traditions pertain to a situation where a Muslim forsakes Islam and the Muslim community and he would then be presumed to have connections with the enemies of Muslims. In order words, he says, he himself assumes the position of an enemy and the rule laid down in these reports amounts to a law of war.

#### Section III

The next tradition to be considered has several verbal variants and, in some of them, the additional words are very significant. The formulation by 'Abdullah b. Mas'üd runs in these terms:

- (1) The Prophet (on him be blessings and peace of God) said: It is not lawful to shed the blood of a person professing Islam, who testifies that there is no god but Allah and that I am the Messenger of Allah, except in three cases: life for a life, or a married person guilty of adultery or a person who separates from his faith and deserts his community—(Bukhari, "Kitāb al-Diyat," "Bāb al-Nafs bi al-Nafs").27 A similar version exists in Tirmidhī's Sunan.
- (2) In the same "Kitāb al-Diyat," "Bāb al-Qasamah," Bukhārī records another version narrated by Abū Qulābah: "The Messenger did not put to death anyone by way of *Hadd* (prescribed punishment) except for one of

<sup>26.</sup> Pp. 202-4.

<sup>27.</sup> Şahih al-Bukhari (Ashah al-Matba'ah, Karachi), Vol. II, p. 1016.

three antecedents: a person who commits murder of his own free will shall be killed, (so also) a person who commits fornication after marriage or a person who fights Allah and His Messenger and becomes an apostate from Islam."<sup>28</sup>

- (3) A summary version is attributed to Hadrat 'A'yeshah in Sunan al-Nasā'ī, in which the relevant words for the third category of persons are "one who commits apostasy, after accepting Islam". A full version is, however, also contained in Nasā'ı's Sunan, which brings out the element of hostility to the community on the part of the apostate.<sup>29</sup> An alternative detailed version is assigned to Hadrat 'A'yeshah by Abū Dāwūd ("Kitāb al-Ḥudūd," "Bāb al-Ḥukm fi man Artadda)." Therein the third category is defined as comprising of a person "Muḥariban bi'llāh wa Rasulahu fa innahu yuqtal au yuslab au yunfa," i.e. "who fights Allah and His Messenger and he will be killed or crucified or banished from the land"—words reminiscent of verse 35 of Sūrat al-Mā'idah.
- (4) Two versions are traced to Hadrat 'Uthmān, the Fourth Caliph. One says: "I heard the Messenger of God (on him be peace and blessings of God) say: It is not lawful to shed the blood of a Muslim except in one out of three cases: a person who apostatises after accepting Islam or who fornicates after marriage or one who kills a person without retaliation for murder of another (Nasā'i, Sunan: "Bāb Dhikr ma yuḥillu bihi dam al-Muslim"). In the second version attributed to Hadrat 'Uthmān, also in the same Bāb in Nasā'i, the relevant words are: "Or

<sup>28.</sup> Ibid., p. 1019.

<sup>29.</sup> Sunan al-Nasā'i (Maktabah Salafīyyah, Lahore, 1376 n.), Vol. II, pp. 161, 236.

<sup>30.</sup> Sunan Abū Dāwūd (Matba'ah Mustafa Muhammad, Cairo 1950), Vol. IV, p. 180.

one who commits apostasy after having believed." It is said that Hadrat 'Uthman had proclaimed this tradition to the crowd that had surrounded his house in order to assassinate him.

(5) Somewhat akin to the theme of this hadith is the one given by Abū Dāwūd on the authority of Jarīr: "When a servant of God runs away to polytheism, shedding of his blood becomes lawful." In the Zamīndār of 8 October 1924, M. Sirāj Aḥmad mentions a version included in the Sunan of Nasā'ī in which the relevant words are: "One who leaves the community and cuts it asunder." There are some lesser compilations of hadīth which mention similar versions, but they need not be noticed.

Al-Sāmarā'i has discussed the tradition traced to Hadrat 'Uthman in his Ahkām al-Murtadd.31 He quotes the opinion of Shaukānī from his Nail al-Autār (Vol. VII, p. 7), with reference to Ibn Mas'ūd's version of the hadith that the words "al-Mafaria li'l-Jamā'ah" occurring therein mean "one who separates from the Islamic community," and that, according to him, is only possible with Kufr (disbelief) and not merely by committing an offence or resorting to an innovation, etc. He adds further that this forsaking of the community "must be for joining the disbelievers' community". He also gives an extract from San'ānī's al-'Āddah 'alā al-Aḥkām al-Aḥkām endorsing this view. San'ani further observes that there is difference of opinion between the Doctors of Law as to whether a woman should be killed for apostasy or not. The view receives some reinforcement from the comment of Ibn Mājah in his Sunan, "Bāb al-Murtadd," to the effect that no action is to be accepted from a person who

has become a polytheist after accepting Islam, until he leaves the *Mushrikin* (polytheists) to rejoin the Muslim community.<sup>32</sup>

In view of the variations in different versions of the hadith it may be legitimate to infer that some of the narrators merely recollected its general sense without preserving the verbal integrity of the hadith. As Imam Shafi'i has remarked in his al-Risālah,33 concerning differences in reports from the Prophet, "Sometimes he (the Prophet) was questioned about something and he used to give a reply in accordance with the question; sometimes the narrator conveyed fully what he had heard and sometimes summarised, so that, on occasions, the full purport was conveyed and, on occasions, this did not happen. Sometimes, a person merely reported that part of the hadith which the Prophet had uttered as his reply, because he was himself not present when the question was asked and which occasioned the answer." With such possibilities open, an attempt to read together all these variant versions so as to get the full picture would be a process which would carry us nearer to the truth. It follows that the delinquents contemplated in the hadith are those who were not merely renegades from the faith but also in active opposition to the Muslims, having joined the warring disbelievers' camp. Their case would thus fall within the purview of verse 34 of Sūrat al-Mā'idah and their condemnation would be in harmony with the letter as well as the spirit of the Our'anic text. The present writer finds that this view receives corroboration from the opinion of Maulana Abu'l-Wafa' Thana' Ullah,

<sup>32.</sup> Ibn Mājah, Sunan, "Bāb al-Murtadd" (Maṭba'ah Mujtabā'ī, Delhi), p. 182.

<sup>33.</sup> Urdu translation by M. Amjad 'Alī, p. 150.

as has been mentioned at the end of Section II.

#### Section IV

Bukhārī in his Ṣaḥīḥ has included a tradition from the mouth of Abū Mūsā Ash'arī.<sup>34</sup> It is related therein that the Prophet sent Abū Mūsā Ash'arī to Yemen as his Governor and, soon after, Mu'ādh b. Jabal was also deputed to go there. Abū Mūsā welcomed him and invited him to sit down. At that time, a Jew had been brought there, under arrest, who had at first become a Muslim but had later reverted to Judaism. Mu'ādh is reported to have declined to sit down unless the apostate Jew was first killed, "in accordance with the judgment of God and His Messenger". His behest was complied with: the Jew was put to death.

Here again we are in the realm of conjecture as to the actual circumstances surrounding apostasy. It is just probable that the Jew had joined the rebel group of Aswad 'Ansi in Yemen and that he was not punished for defection from the faith alone. Aswad 'Ansi had set up claim to prophethood and had become an apostate in the Prophet's lifetime. The Christians of Najran had joined him and they had ousted the Prophet's two appointees to the area, 'Umar b. Hazm and Khālid b. Sa'īd b. al-'Aṣ. Aswad had himself occupied Ṣan'ā'. This suggestion gains some strength from the consideration that Mu'ādh had cited the authority of Allah and His Mesen-

<sup>34.</sup> Şahih al-Bukhāri, Bāb "Ḥukm al-Murtadd wa'l-Murtaddāt wa Istita-bathum" (Ashah al-Matba'ah, Karachi), Vol. II, p. 1023.

<sup>35.</sup> Dr M. Hamīdullah, Siyāsi Wathiqah-jāt (Urdu translation by M. Yahyā Imām Khān Nowsbehrwī, pp. 188-9) (with reference to Tabarī's "History"); Dā'irah-i-Ma'ārif-i-Islāmīyah (Urdu), Punjab University, Lahore, 1971. Vol. II. p. 768.

ger both, in support of his demand for the extreme penalty to be inflicted on the Jew. In the Our'an, as we have seen, there is no mention of any such punishment for an apostate, but death is to be the portion of a muhārib Allāh (one who fights God, i.e. the Muslim community). In the absence of the exact words of the Our'an or of the Prophet that Mu'adh had in mind, the position remains equivocal and in any event this would be a very weak precedent. If it was a decision based on the personal Ijtihād (opinion arrived at after considering analogous provisions of the Our'an or the Sunnah of Mu'adh b. Jabal, it would not be of binding value. Shah Wali Ullah in his Hujjat Allah al-Balighah, 36 cites the opinion of 'Abdullah b. 'Abbās, 'Atā', Mujāhid and Imām Mālik to the effect that, however eminent a personality may be, if certain statements of his are accepted, there may be some other statements attributed to him, which it would be necessary to reject. For there is no man except the Prophet whose every saying would be capable of citation as a conclusive argument. Earlier<sup>37</sup> he expresses the categorical view that the basis of some statements ascribed to Sahābah (Companions of the Prophet) is merely "forgetfulness or error". In the Mukhtasar of Sayyid al-Sharif al-Juriani it is said: "Whatever is related from a Sahābi, either in the form of a saying or in the shape of action, whether narrated by a continuous chain of narrators or not, is not a binding instance.38 In the Qamar al-Agmar Sharh Nar al-Anwar39 it is laid down on the authority of Maulana' Abdal-'Ali Bahr al-'Ulum, that

<sup>36.</sup> Urdu translation by M. 'Abdur Raḥīm, Vol. I, p. 677.

<sup>37.</sup> Ibid., p. 655.

<sup>38-39.</sup> As quoted by M. Sher 'Alī, in his Qatl- Murtadd aur Islām pp. 142-3.

the mere possibility that a Ṣaḥābi (Companion) might have based himself on what he might have heard from the Prophet does not make it obligatory to follow his opinion. There is also the well-known observation of Imām Shāfi'i regarding the Ṣaḥābah: "They were men and so are we." It is interesting to recall that Maulānā Charāgh 'Alī (Nawāb A'zam Yār Jang) criticises the decision of Mu'ādh as one in conflict with the Our'anic text."

What happened exactly on the occasion to which the report relates is also open to some doubt. 'Ainī in his 'Umdat al-Qārī gives varying versions as to whether the Jew was simply put to death or also burnt.<sup>42</sup>

#### Section V

There are two traditions concerning a woman who is said to have been killed for apostasy, by order of the Prophet. One is traced to Hadrat 'A yeshah which places the incident on the day of Uhud and the other to Jābir b. 'Abdullah, by Dāraquṭnī and Baihaqī. In the chain of narrators pertaining to the tradition from Hadrat 'A'yeshah, there occurs the name of Muḥammad b. 'Abdul-Mālik, as the ultimate transmitter. In respect of him, al-Zaila'ī, the author of Naṣb al-Rāyah li Aḥādīth al-Hidāyah comments that Aḥmad and others had described him as a fabricator of traditions. The same learned writer criticises Jābir b. Abdullah's tradition in the words: "And

<sup>40.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>41.</sup> Nawab A'zam Yur Jang (M. Charugh 'Ali), Proposed Political, Legal and Social Reforms under Muslim Rule, Urdu translation: A'zam al-Kalām ji Irtigā' al-Islām, by M. 'Abdul Haqq, pp. 86 et seq.

<sup>42.</sup> Vol. XI & XII, p. 235.

<sup>43.</sup> See Part III, Bab "Ahkam al-Murtaddin".

<sup>44.</sup> Ibid.

'Abdullah b. Uzniyyah's testimony (he was one of the chain of narrators) has been invalidated by Ibn Habban. He says: It is not permissible to base an argument on him in this situation, and in al-Mu'talif wa'l-Mukhtalif, Daraqutnī has characterised him as "one rejected". Ibn 'Adī has related this hadith in his al-Kāmil and commented: "'Abdullah b. 'Atārid b. Uznīyyah is not acknowledged in respect of *Hadith* and I have not seen our predecessors say anything against this." Both these traditions, therefore, are of doubtful authenticity. In any event, they are vague and indefinite formulations, furnishing no details of the woman involved. It is pertinent to advert to the fact that al-Zaila'145 has also cited two other ahādith, in one of which the words ascribed to the Prophet are: "Do not kill the woman, if she commits apostasy." This too has been included in Daraqutni's compilation of Traditions. However, the compiler describes the principal narrator, 'Abdullah b. 'lsā al-Jazrī, as a liar. The other hadith is from al-Kāmil of Ibn'Adī, traced from Abū Hurairah, and says that a woman who became an apostate was not killed by the Prophet. This is also attacked as of weak authority. Apparently on this point, conflicting but weak traditions are not scarce.

There is one other tradition having a bearing on this subject, in which the woman has been named as Umm Marwān. She was said to have been put to death under orders of the Prophet. It is included in Dāraquṭnī's "Collection," being traced to Jābir. The last transmitter in the chain of narrators is Ma'mar b. Bakkār who is said to be of imaginative type by 'Uqailī, according to the author of Naṣb al-Rāyah. But even if this tradition is

<sup>45.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>46.</sup> Ibid.

accepted as authentic, there is evidence available which differentiates the case from that of a mere apostate. She was actively hostile to the Muslims. Sarakhsī, in his Mabsat, 47 informs us that she partook in actual fighting against Muslims and exhorted others to join the warring group and that she had a following. It was, therefore, for her conduct as a Muhāribah (an active oppositionist) that she was put to death, rather than for her change of faith. Some authorities from the school of thought which exempts female apostates from being killed have already been noticed earlier and they would serve to strengthen. the inference open on the above discussion that there is no clear warrant for holding that the Prophet had ordered the killing of a woman for apostasy simpliciter. Instances of the Prophet forbidding slaughter of women even in battle would be found summarised in al-Sāmarā'ī's Ahkām al-Murtadd, where the prohibition is stated to be grounded on lack of capacity of females for fighting.48

#### Section VI

The instance of 'Abdullah b. Abī Sarḥ is also mentioned by one Pakistani scholar<sup>49</sup> as lending support to his thesis that the punishment of apostasy is death. The instance, when considered in all its bearings, seems to negative that proposition. Two versions are extracted from the Sunan of Abū Dāwūd, "Kitāb-al-Hudūd," Bāb "al-iļukm fī man Artadda". In the first version it is said that this man took shelter with Ḥaḍrat 'Uthmān, on whose intercession the Prophet pardoned him. According

<sup>47.</sup> Vol. X, pp. 108-10.

<sup>48.</sup> Pp. 219-20.

<sup>49.</sup> M. Abu'l-A'la Maududi, Murtadd Ki Saza Islami Qanun Men, pp. 16-8.

to the second version, Hadrat 'Uthman requested the Prophet three times, repeatedly, to accept his allegiance and the Prophet apparently reluctantly acceded to the request, for he later turned to his Companions and said: "Was there no rightly-guided person among you who could have risen to kill this man, seeing that I was withholding my hand from his allegiance?" The Companions are reported to have said that they could not know what was in the mind of the Prophet unless he had himself given them an indication by a wink of his eye. The Prophet told them that it was not becoming a Prophet to have made such a stealthy sign with his eye.

The facts of the case are given by Tabariso and Ibn al-Athir<sup>51</sup> in their Histories and they are also mentioned by Razi<sup>52</sup> in his Tafsir al-Kabir and by Muhammad Hasnain Haikal in his "Life of the Prophet".53 After accepting Islam, he used to act as one of the scribes for taking down the Qur'anic verses revealed to the Prophet from time to time. He became a renegade and joined the polytheist Ouraish before whom he boasted that he used to write what was dictated to him by the Prophet as and where he liked. He was one of those under sentence of death by order of the Prophet, at the time of the Conquest of Mecca. 'Abdullah was a foster-brother of Hadrat 'Uthman and that is why he gave him shelter and interceded successfully on his behalf with the Prophet. He was under the sentence apparently for his political crime in making common cause with the enemies of the Muslims and not

<sup>50.</sup> Urdu translation by S. Muhammad Ibrāhīm Nadvī, Vol. I. pp. 400 et seq.

<sup>51.</sup> Urdu translation by M. Maqsūd 'Alī Khairābādī, Vol. II, pp. 407 et seq.

<sup>52.</sup> Vol. V, p. 527.

<sup>53.</sup> Hayat-i-Muhammad (Urdu translation: Sirat al-Rasul by Muhammad Wärith Kämil), p. 526.

for mere apostasy. For if he was liable to hadd-i-Shara'i for that offence, it is unlikely that tladrat 'Uthman should have given him protection. The fact that he received such protection strongly suggests that his proclaimed punishment was not with reference to his apostasy but to his association with and encouragement of polytheist belligerents.

There were actually ten or twelve persons in all who were under the sentence of death, if captured, for their oppositionist role, at that time. They were, besides Ibn Abī Sarh, 'Abdullah b. Khatal,' Ikrimah b. Abī Jahl, Huwairith b. Nagīd, Mugais b. Sabābah, Hibār b. al-Aswad, Ka'b b, Zuhair, Hindah bint 'Utbah (wife of Abū Sufyan, who had mutilated the dead body of the Prophet's uncle Hamzah, in the Battle of Uhud), Wahshi b. Harab, Safwan b. Umayyah and 'Abdullah b. Zab'arī Sahmi. They were all persons who had either persecuted the Muslims or fought against them. Wahshi had killed Hamzah by hurling his weapon at him from a distance. Ibn Khatal had become a Muslim but had run away after killing a Sahābī or, according to one version, a Muslim slave. He used to revile the Prophet in verses that were sung by his two slave-girls—these girls, according to Ibn Athir, were among those under sentence of death, in absentia. Ka'b and fluwairith were also charged with similar abusive and vilifying roles. Hibar had attacked the camel carrying Hadrat Zainab, daughter of the Prophet, in collaboration with Huwairith, and the latter also attacked the camel on which two other daughters of the Prophet, Hadrat Fatimah and Hadrat Umm Kulthum, were travelling and, in both cases, the riders had fallen off their mounts and received injuries. Mugais b. Sabābah had become a renegade, but he was not

immediately interfered with. He was killed during the Conquest of Mecca by Ghīlah b. 'Abdullah Kalbī. Muqais had earlier killed an Anṣārī Muslim who had killed a brother of Muqais, under a misapprehension—khatā'an—and he then had run away and defected from the Muslim community. Zarqānī in his Sharh Mawāhib al-Ladunniyyah has also given their histories. Some details about these persons are also furnished by Ibn Hishām in his Sirat. However, only four of these persons were eventually killed, the rest receiving pardon from the Prophet, including Waḥshī, the killer of Hamzah. Their offences lay in the political rather than the religious field. It cannot be maintained, in consequence, that the case of Ibn Abī Sarh is, in any sense, an apt illustration of the liability of an apostate to the supreme penalty.

The attempt by some writers to draw strength for their contention that death is the prescribed punishment for apostasy, from the incident relating to 'Ukl or 'Urainah people, must also founder on the rock of differentiating facts. The relevant hadith is set out in Sahih Bukhārī<sup>57</sup> and Sahīh Muslim.<sup>58</sup> It is traced from Anas. The circumstances in which these persons from 'Ukl were killed have already been preferred to, while commenting on verse 35 of Sūrat al-Mā'idah, and they are detailed in several commentaries of the Qur'ān, e.g. Ālūsī's Rūḥ al-Ma'ānī, Suyūṭī's Lubab al-Nuqul fī Asbāb al-Nuzul, Rāzī's Tafsir al-Kabīr and others. They were guilty of brutal murder combined with robbery, and

<sup>54.</sup> Zarqanī, Mawahib al-Ladunniyyah, Vol. II, p. 321.

<sup>55.</sup> Ibid.

<sup>56.</sup> Vol. II, pp. 69-78.

<sup>57.</sup> Urdu translation (with Arabic text) by S. Nā'ib Naqwī and Muhammad 'Alī, Vol. III, p. 587.

<sup>58.</sup> Part I, Vol. II, Bab Huhm al-Muharibin wa'l-Murtaddin, p. 93.

they were dealt with on that basis and not for apostasy alone.

Another reported hadith ascribes instructions issued by the Prophet to Mu'adh b. Jabal when he was leaving for Yemen that both male and female apostates were to be killed unless they repented. In his marginal comment on this hadith, M. Muḥammad Ḥasan Sunbalī, 50 in his edition of the Hidāyah, has criticised this hadīth as resting on weak authority as its narrators are questionable.

It is claimed that a woman who was abusing the Prophet was killed by a Sahābi and the Prophet remitted her Oisās (punishment for murder). The tradition is included in the Sunan of Abū Dāwūd and is said to have been narrated by 'Ikrimah and Sha'bi. Doubt has been cast on its authenticity by criticism of Nasa'ī, among others, of 'Uthman al-Shaham, one of the narrators, as a weak link. Sha'bi's version is also not accepted as authentic as, according to Häkim, he had not heard a single tradition from Hadrat 'Ali whom he had claimed as the source of information for this hadith. Apart from this aspect of the matter, however, the death of the woman was caused under circumstances of grave provocation offered by her to Muslims, and if the Prophet. as Head of the State, remitted the punishment, the instance cannot be put forward to buttress the contention that apostasy had to be punished with death. In this connection, it would be pertinent to refer to another hadith included in Sahih Bukhāri. It is reported that a Jew, while passing by the Prophet, had said: "As-sām-u-'alaikum'' (death on you). The Prophet merely retorted back: "Wa 'alaik" (and on you). When the people around asked for permission of the Prophet to kill him, he forbade

them from doing so. 60 So apparently such kind of provocative conduct was also to be ignored.

#### Section VII

As we have seen, none of the aḥādīth, normally relied on by the protagonists of the penalty, unequivocally support that judgment. That they should not be so construed is a suggestion that has much to commend itself in view of what follows.

A hadith is related from Jābir b. 'Abdullah in Ṣaḥiḥ al-Bukhārī, 61 by three different chains of narrators, to the effect that a Bedouin Arab accepted Islam and took the oath of fealty on the Prophet's hand. Soon after, he contracted high fever and came back to the Prophet to demand cancellation of his allegiance. He repeated this demand three times, but each time it was refused. He then went away—apparently unmolested. The Prophet merely remarked that Medina is like a furnace which separates the dross from what is pure. If apostasy had to be visited with the death sentence, he should not have been allowed to depart with immunity. There is also discussion of this hadith in the Fath al-Bārī.62

Interesting light is thrown on the question we are considering by clauses (4) and (5) of the Hudaibīyyah Peace Pact, concluded between the Muslims acting through the Prophet and the polytheist Quraish of Mecca through their plenipotentiary, Suhail b. 'Umar. These clauses are reproduced below:<sup>63</sup>

<sup>60.</sup> Urdu translation (with Arabic text) by S. Nā'ib Naqwī and Muḥammad 'Alī, Vol. 111, p. 598.

<sup>61.</sup> Ibid., Vol. III, pp. 689-91.

<sup>62.</sup> Ibn Hajar al-'Asqalüni, Fath al-Bari, Vol. XIII, p. 173.

<sup>63.</sup> Dr M. Hamīdullah, op. cit., Urdu translation by M. Aba Yaḥyā Imam Khan Nowshehrawi, p. 53.

- (4) If a Meccan becomes a Muslim, without the permission of his family chief and migrates to Medina, it will be obligatory for Muḥammad to return him to Mecca.
- (5) In the reverse case, if someone from Medina defects from Islam and seeks protection in Mecca the Quraish would not return him.

If the apostate Muslim was liable to the death sentence, it is extremely unlikely that such a provision should have been agreed to, in derogation of a Commandment of the *Shari'ah*.

Again, in the document of Amān (protection) granted to the Hadas branch of the Lakhm tribe by the Prophet<sup>64</sup> and scribed by 'Abdullah b. Zaid, it is provided that in respect of members of the tribe who accept Islam, keep up prayer, pay the Zakāt and the Prophet's share and give up friendly relations with the polytheists, the responsibility to protect their lives, their property and their honour will rest on Allah and His Messenger (i.e. on the Muslims). "But if any one of them, after becoming a Muslim, commits apostasy, then the responsibility of Allah and His Messenger will cease with regard to him, and a person who authenticates his Islam by his actions will have his faith certified by the Prophet." Nothing was said to indicate that apostasy would invite the capital sentence—only he would lose his protective cover.

It is also possible to gain some guidance on the point in question from the dialogue that took place between Abū Sufyān (who was then a non-Muslim) and the Ceasar of Byzantium, whom the Arabs give the name of "Herqal" (Heracles). Abū Sufyān was accompanied by his Quraish

companions and one of the questions put by the King to Abū Sufyān was whether any of the followers of the Prophet was known to have become a renegade from his faith. The answer was in the negative. Here was an occasion for Abū Sufyān to have assigned this steadfastness to the threat of the extreme penalty for apostasy if such had been the case—he was no friendly emissary who could suppress such a fact. The absence of such a charge is significant.<sup>65</sup>

When "Oiblah" for prayers was changed, by Divine Command, from Bait al-Mugaddas to the Ka'bah at Mecca, the decision came as a shock to the Jews and even to some Muslims. The incident is referred to in the opening verses of Part II of the Our'an and it is explained in verse 144 of Sūrat al-Baqarah that the change was effected so that Allah "might know him who follows the Messenger from him who turns upon his heels". Ibn Jarīr Tabarī in his commentary Jāmi' al-Bayān mentions that some of the Muslims had actually defected from Islam on this occasion. 66 He quotes the comment of Ibn Juraij that these apostates said: "Once it is here and another time it is here"—objecting to the change of "Qiblah". There is no indication given, however, that these apostates were punished for their defection, nor do the relevant Our'anic verses point to any such dispensation.

There is apparently some difference of opinion between scholars as to whether  $Isr\bar{a}$ ' (which is mentioned in Sūrah Banī Isrā'īl) and  $M\iota'r\bar{a}j$  (to which reference exists in Sūrat al-Najm) are two separate phenomena or they both represent one single experience of the Prophet.  $Isr\bar{a}$ '

<sup>65.</sup> Ibn al-Athīr, al-Kāmil, Urdu translation by Maqşūd 'Alī Khairābādī, p. 344.

<sup>66.</sup> Vol. II, p. 8.

means the night-journey which the Prophet is said to have performed from Mecca to Jerusalem and back in one night and  $Mi^{i}r\bar{a}j$  is the ascension to the Heavens and the experiences related to it. Both Ibn Hishām<sup>67</sup> and Ibn Athir 68 have given the Prophet's account of his experiences in this regard and some of the people who heard of this claim made by the Prophet turned apostates. Ibn Hisham has cited the opinion of Hasan in this context that the Our'anic verse: "And We appointed the vision which We showed thee as an ordeal for mankind and (likewise) the Accursed Tree in the Our'an" (Banī Isrā'il, verse 61), was revealed in respect of those who became apostates on this occasion. None of the historians, however, has mentioned any attempt being made to bring the offenders to book by any pressure or punishment. Al-Sāmarā'i has also referred to this incident in his Ahkām al-Murtadd 69 in an extract from the Musnad of Ahmad who mentions that these apostates were killed along with Abu Jahl (in the Battle of Badr) but evidently not sentenced to death after adjudication.

The treatment of hypocrites by the Prophet, in spite of their identity being known, has already received attention earlier during the discussion on the position of apostates under the Qur'an. A signal instance in this connection is that of Jalas b. Suwaid b. Samit. As related by Ibn Hisham, he had lagged behind when the Prophet had proceeded with his Companions for the Expedition to Tabūk. Not only that but he gave out that "if this person (meaning the Prophet) had been right, we should

<sup>67.</sup> Sirat, Urdu translation by Qutb-ud-Din Ahmad Mahmudi, Vol. II, pp. 7 et seq.

<sup>68.</sup> Al-Kāmil, Urdu translation by Maqşūd 'Alī Khairābādī, Vol. II, pp. 64-72.

<sup>69.</sup> P. 35.

have been worse than asses." This was conveyed to the Prophet, but Jalas, when questioned, swore falsely that he had said nothing. 70 On this the avah was revealed: "They swear by Allah that they said nothing (wrong), yet they did say the word of disbelief, and did disbelieve after their surrender (to Allah). And they purposed that which they could not attain, and they sought revenge only that Allah by His Messenger should enrich them of His bounty. If they repent, it will be better for them, and if they turn away, Allah will afflict them with a painful doom in this world and the Hereafter, and they have no protecting friend or helper in the earth" (al-Taubah, verse 75). He, too, in spite of his proclaimed disbelief in the word of God, was apparently not killed for his apostasy. Indeed Ibn Ishaq is reported to have said that he, later on, repented and became a good Muslim

Shāh Wali Ullāh in his Hujjat Allah al-Bālighah<sup>71</sup> has referred to the strange case of a person who became a Murtadd in the Prophet's time. He died and, when buried, the earth "did not accept him but threw out his dead body". Probably he had in mind a hadīth included in Bukhārī's al-Ṣaḥiḥ and traced to Anas.<sup>72</sup> It is related therein that a Christian became a Muslim, learnt the Sūrahs al-Baqarah and Āl-i-'Imrān from the Prophet and became one of the scribes of the relevations. He later reverted to his original faith and bragged that the Prophet knew only as much as he had written out for him. Sometime after, he died (evidently a natural death) and was buried. His dead body was seen to have been

<sup>70.</sup> Sirat, Urdu translation, op. cit., pp 203-5.

<sup>71.</sup> Urdu translation, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 822.

<sup>72.</sup> Ra'is Ahmad Ja'frī, Talkhis al-Bukhāri (Arabic-Urdu), p. 359.

cast out of his grave the day after his burial. This time he was buried even deeper into the ground but the same strange phenomenon occurred again. The deceased's relatives suspected that the Prophet's followers had a hand in this mysterious incident. He was again buried and this time at a much greater depth under ground. Lo! and behold! his body was found thrown out again and people were now convinced that this was not due to human action. The point of this hadith is that the man was not put to death for his apostasy which was even accompanied by grave provocation to the Muslims.

In the sixth year of the Hijrah, according to Ibn Athir, Mujā'ah b. Murārah who had come as a member of a delegation from Hauzah b. 'Ali, King of Yamāmah, became a Muslim. He, however, went back, defected from the faith and even brought up a false accusation against the Prophet that the latter had taken Musailimah Kadhdhāb as his partner. There is, however, no mention

of any attempt being made to punish him.73

Professor Heffening, in his article on "Murtadd" in the Encyclopaedia of Islam (1932 Edition), says there are traditions according to which even the Prophet forgave apostates, and he cites Nasā'ī ("Taḥrīm al-Dam," Bāb 14, 15), Abū Dāwūd ("Hudūd," Bāb 1), Ibn Hanbal (Vol. I, p. 247) and Tafsīr Tabarī (Vol. III, p. 223), in support of this view. This remark and the other positive instances of absence of action against apostates, adduced above, negative the contention of those who urge that the Prophet had determined the punishment for apostasy to be death, as a part of the religious dispensation, stricto sensu.

It has been seen that even the strongest bulwark of 73. Ibn Athīr, al-Kāmil, Urdu translation, op. cit., Vol. II, p. 350.

the orthodox view, viz. the Sunnah, when subjected to critical examination in the light of history, does not fortify the stand of those who seek to establish that a Muslim who commits apostasy must be condemned to death for his change of belief alone. In instances in which apparently such a punishment was inflicted, other factors have been found to co-exist, which would have justified action in the interest of collective security. As against them, some positive instances of tolerance of defections from the Faith, with impunity for the renegades, suggest that the Prophet acted strictly in conformity with the letter and the spirit of the Our'an, and mere change of faith, if peaceful, cannot be visited with any punishment. The sayings of the Prophet, on which the whole edifice of orthodox reasoning is raised, in the absence of a knowledge of the surrounding circumstances, must be construed in a sense which would make them consistent with the Book of God, for it is unimaginable that the Prophet could have gone against any Our'anic text. There is no doubt a section of 'Ulama' who make the Sunnah the final arbiter in every case of seeming or real conflict with the Qur'an-their claim is: "Al-Sunnah rādīvah 'ala'l-Kitāb''—The Sunnah is the judge over the Book. This is not accepted by some of the best minds among the Muslim scholars, past or present, and such a doctrine would indeed strike an unconscionable blow at the integrity and pristine purity of the Our'an.

## Chapter III

# APOSTASY AND THE "KHILAFAT AL-RĀSHIDAH"

#### Section I

It is asserted that a woman named 'Umm Furqah was ordered to be killed by Hadrat Abū Bakr (the First Caliph) for apostasy. But this is based on a misconception. She was not merely an apostate but a rebel who exhorted her thirty sons to war with the Muslims. She would be, therefore, legitimately classed as a Muḥāribah herself.

Much is made by those who favour the death sentence for apostasy, of the wars of Hadrat Abū Bakr with the Murtaddīn. Rāzı in his Tafsīr al-Kabīr² has given a list of eleven tribes that had defected from Islam, three of them having done so in the Prophet's own time and eight in that of Hadrat Abū Bakr's. The first tribe to commit apostasy was the Banū Madlaj whose chief was Aswad 'Ansī, in Yemen. As has been mentioned already, he had rebelled against the State and ejected the Prophet's 'Āmilīn (officials) from several cities. The Prophet had written to his Governor in Yemen, Mu'ādh b. Jabal, and the other chiefs of Yemen to counter his movement and Aswad was killed. Banū Hanīfah was the tribe of Musailimah Kadhdhāb who had the effrontery to write to the Prophet to ask for half

Al-Sāmarā'i, Ahkām al-Murtadd, p. 220; Sarakhsī, al-Mabsūţ, Vol. X.
 p. 110.

<sup>2.</sup> Vol. III, p. 415.

the land of Arabia for himself. When rebuffed, he rose in revolt, set himself up as a prophet and made common cause with another pretender, a woman named Sajāh. He had ousted Thumamah b. Athal, the appointee of the Prophet, from governorship and assumed rulership of Hijāz and al-Yamāmah. He killed Halīb b. Zain, a Sahābi, who had refused to accept his claim as prophet, mutilated his body and then burnt it. Action had already started against him in the Prophet's lifetime, but his movement was liquidated in the time of Hadrat Abū Bakr at the Battle of Yamamah. The third tribe that became apostate in the Prophet's lifetime was the Banû Asad, Tulaihah b. Khawailid Asadī being their chief. He too raised an army and tortured the Muslims he captured to death. He was defeated by Khālid b. Walīd, during Hadrat Abū Bakr's regime. He ran away to Syria and later turned a Muslim. Lagīt b. Mālik Azdī also became an apostate and arrogated to himself the status of a prophet. He too rebelled and usurped the rulership of 'Uman. Military action was eminently justified against all these persons.

Tabarī has given a full account of all these rebel tribes who had refused to pay Zakāt and defied the State officials. Apparently Hadrat 'Umar had his doubts about the legitimacy of the war against those tribes whose members still recited the declaration of faith though they had declined to pay Zakāt. Abū Bakr reassured him by declaring that he would fight those who differentiated between prayer and Zakāt, for the latter was Haqq al-Māl (due on property, to be exacted by the State). Hadrat

<sup>3.</sup> Sahih al-Bukhārī: Urdu translation (with Arabic text) by S. Na'ib Naqwi and M. Muhammad 'Alī, Vol. 111, p. 597.

## Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

'Umar agreed with Hadrat Abū Bakr. Zakāt was collected as a State impost during the Prophet's time as well as during the Khilafat al-Rashidah. The Qur'an directs the Prophet to "take alms out of their wealth (of those who repented of their sins) so that thou mayest cleanse them and purify them thereby" (al-Taubah, verse 103). There is also a hadīth in Bukhārī which describes Zakāt as wealth "which is taken from the rich and returned to the poor". Maulana Muhammad 'Ali' in The Religion of Islam says about Zakāt: "It is a State institution or. where there is no Muslim State, a national institution."4 Actually this was not a simple case of defiance of one particular Commandment of God-the conduct of the tribes amounted to rebellion and they resorted to actual armed attacks on Muslims, as Tabarī clarifies.5 The initiative in the fighting was taken by the tribes of 'Abas and Dubyan and Hadrat Abū Bakr had to fight them before Usamah had returned from the campaign to which he had been assigned. Then other tribes followed suit and gathered in force at Dhi al-Qissah. Khārjiah b. Hasin had advanced on the Muslims to take them by surprise. After Hadrat Abū Bakr had refused the demand for exemption from Zakāt, made by some tribes, they had actually invaded Medina. Hadrat Abū Bakr had himself warned the Muslims of the impending attack in these words: "The land (i.e. people) has become apostate and their delegations have seen that you are small in number. You do not know whether you might be attacked by night or by day. . . . . ' They actually attacked Medina three days later, leaving a group of

<sup>4.</sup> P. 467.

<sup>5.</sup> Tā'rikh (E.J. Brill edn.), Vol. IV, pp. 1872-7 et seq., 1900 and 1960.

fighters in Dhī Hussī. They had killed the staunch Muslims who were still living among them, earlier. In the 'Umdat al-Qārī it is also stated by 'Ainī: ''And al-Ṣiddīq [Abū Bakr] fought those who refused to pay Zakāt because they had taken up the sword and started a war against the Ummah.'' Tabarī further elucidates' that Khālid b. Walīd refused to pardon the recalcitrant Murtaddīn unless they had first surrendered those of their number who had burnt to death Muslims or mutilated their bodies. The tribe of Banū Rabī'ah had set up a new king in the person of al-Mundhar b. al-Nu'mān, known as al-Maghrūr, in Ḥīrah.

Professors Wellhausen and Caetani have expressed the opinion that these were purely political rebellions having not much connection with religion. Their article on "Siddiq-i-Akbar" in the latest edition of the Encyclopaedia of Islam may be referred to in this context. In the face of the facts detailed above, the plea of those who maintain that these people were merely guilty of noncompliance with a tenet of Islam cannot be sustained.

Maulānā Sa'īd Ahmad Akbarābādī, in his book Siddīq-i-Akbar, has approached this subject from another angle. He thinks that tribes who refused to pay the Zakāt did so under the influence of their tribalism ('Aṣabīyyah) as they apprehended that after the Prophet's demise they would be relegated to the inferior position of the tributaries of the Islamic State. In reality, according to the learned author, they were not Murtaddīn (apostates) in the strict sense and that is why Hadrat

<sup>6.</sup> Vols. XI and XII, p. 236

<sup>7.</sup> Tā'rīkh, Vol. IV.

<sup>8.</sup> Pp. 149, 161.

# Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

'Umar and some other Companions gave expression to their duties about the propriety of making war on them. There were others, however, he says, like the followers of Talhah (or Tulaihah) and Musailimah who had never been genuine Muslims but had accepted, for a time, the hegemony of the Islamic State. He expresses his conclusion in these words: "In the first place, this was not a case of Irtidād (apostasy) and, if it was, then it was more of a political than a religious defection. That is to say, these people, as a matter of expediency, had agreed to give political allegiance to the Prophet, remaining hypocrites at heart. Subsequently they busied themselves in intrigues and when the conditions were favourable, they openly raised the banner of revolt."

Tabrari<sup>9</sup> mentions in his "History" that Ḥaḍrat Abū Bakr had pardoned 'Ainīyyah b. Ḥiṣn and Qurrah b. Habīrah who had been captured by the Muslims, although 'Ainīyyah had declared that he had till then not believed in God and Qurrah had also secretly become an apostate, though he adopted hypocrisy in this regard. The treatment of these two persons indicates the absence of any settled rule for the punishment of apostates.

This historical perspective thus yields no indication that the first Caliph had acted on the principle that a change of faith, even though peaceful, would require to be suppressed by force. His wars were waged against active rebels.

## Section II

The Kanz al-'Ummāl<sup>10</sup> includes a report (relied upon by some scholars) to the following effect: 'Amr b. al-'Āṣ,

<sup>9.</sup> Tā'rikh=Urdu translation by S. Ibrahīm Nadwī, Part III, p. 78.

<sup>10.</sup> Shaikh 'Alī Muttaqī, Kanz al-'Ummāl=Urdu translation by S. Farīd ud.Dīn alias Achcho Mian, p. 508.

the Governor of Egypt, wrote to Hadrat 'Umar, the Second Caliph, that a person had accepted Islam but had reverted to disbelief. He again came back to the Islamic fold but became a renegade a second time. He had been oscillating between the two faiths a number of times and now finally wanted to rejoin the Muslim community. The Governor asked for advice as to what should be done in such a case. Hadrat 'Umar is said to have replied that his Islam "should be accepted as long as Allah accepts it"—so long as he goes on repenting, his profession should be accepted as valid. It was added by the Caliph in his reply that if, after presentation of Islam, he declines to follow it, they should smite his neck. The first part of the advice makes it clear that repeated apostasies were to be telerated. The second part, in the absence of a clear authority from the Our'an or the Sunnah, may be demurred to, with the highest respect for the great Caliph, in the same spirit in which a woman had dared to contradict him, by citing a verse of the Our'an, when he wanted to limit women's dower by an order. The Kanz al-'Ummāl, moreover, is a collection of Hadith on which not much reliance is placed by adepts in the subject. However, the report could be reconciled with the Our'anic text and the Prophet's Sunnah, if it is presumed that each time the man defected, he joined the enemy ranks.

The second incident of Hadrat 'Umar's time, to which reference is generally made is that, after the conquest of Tustar, Sa'd b. Abī Waqqāş and Abū Mūsā Ash'arī had sent a messenger to the Caliph. Among other things, the messenger reported that they had caught an Arab who had committed apostasy after becoming a Muslim and had killed him. Hadrat 'Umar said: 'Why did you not

## Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

do this? You should have shut him up in a room, bolted the door and given him one loaf of bread on each of three days. He might possibly have repented in that time. O God! this was not done under my orders, nor was it done in my presence, nor was I pleased when I heard it." It is emphasised, however, that Sa'd and Abū Mūsā were not called to account for what they had done and the Caliph's comments merely established the desirability of an opportunity being allowed for repentance. This dialogue between Hadrat 'Umar and the messenger is given by Abū Ja'far Taḥāvī in Sharh Ma'ānī al-Āthār11 and also by Ibn al-Athīr Jazrī in his Jāmi' al-Fawā'id. 12 It is, moreover, said to be mentioned in Shāsi'ī's Kitāb al-Umm and Muwattā' of Baihagī. As for the three days' grace period, the question will be discussed hereinafter.

Taḥavī's compilation referred to above recounts another incident connected with what happened during the conquest of Tustar. Anas came as the emissary of Abū Mūsā to the Caliph 'Umar who inquired as to what had befallen Hajībah and his companions and also about the people of Bakr b. Wā'il. They had become apostates and joined the polytheists. They were killed by the Muslims, apparently in a fight, and when this was reported to the Caliph, he observed that they should have caught them alive for that would have been more pleasing to him than any valuables. The emissary said: "O Commander of the Faithful! what could have been done to them except that they should have been killed, if they were captured alive?" The Caliph replicd: "If you had taken them alive, I would have presented to them the door by which

<sup>11.</sup> Vol. II, pp. 117-21.

<sup>12.</sup> Pp. 282-3.

they had gone out (of Islam). If they had reverted (to Islam), well and good; otherwise I would have consigned them to prison." Apparently these people had been killed in regular battle as Baihaqī clarifies in his Sunan al-Kubrā, "Kitābal-Murtadd". 13 Inspiteof that, the Caliph, it seems, would have merely imprisoned them unless they repented -there is no indication here that he would have killed them. This report, therefore, seems to detract from the value of the precedent dealt with above. For these people were not simple apostates—they had, in addition, fought the Muslims, and if such leniency could be shown in their case, a fortiori, greater leniency would have been possible in respect of mere apostasy unaccompanied by Hirāb (active enmity). In the alternative, an assumption ought to be made that even in the instance cited above the persons concerned were *Muhāribs* (active oppositionists) and not mere renegades from the faith.

The third incident of the Second Caliph's time, on which reliance is placed by some writers on the subject of apostasy, relates to the case of 'Abdullah b. al-Nawāḥah. It was reported to 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd that some people sitting in a mosque of Banī Ḥanīfah were declaring Musailimah to be a prophet. They were sent for by 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd and they all expressed penitence. Out of them, 'Abdullah bin al-Nawāḥah was ordered to be killed, but the rest were allowed to go away. 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd explained that Ibn al-Nawāḥah was one of two persons who had come as envoys of Musailimah to the Messenger of God. On the Prophet's query whether they would testify to his prophethood, the two envoys put the counter question: Do you testify

## Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

that Musailimah is God's messenger?" On this the Messenger of God observed that if it had been permissible to kill delegates, he would have ordered both of them to be slain. They were, however, allowed to depart without molestation, as envoys were entitled to protection. It was because of this remark of the Prophet that 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd had ordered that he be put to death. One scholar thinks that as 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd was Chief Qadī of Kūfah under 'Umar at that time and his action was apparently condoned by the Caliph, it should be accepted as a precedent favouring death for an apostate. 14 It may, however, be pointed out that if Ibn al-Nawahah was also penitent along with his companions, the Chief Oādī was under a religious obligation to accept his Taubah, even according to the orthodox view. In so far as he departed from this norm, his personal decision cannot be upheld as a binding precedent. Moreover, the Prophet himself had stayed his hand out of respect for his status as envoy and one fails to see how words uttered by him in that capacity would make him liable to the supreme penalty, if he was subsequently captured, in another context. The Prophet's observation on that occasion should have been accepted on its face value as conferring immunity on the man despite his obnoxious conduct. In any event, this incident cannot be used as a precedent for ordering the death sentence for apostasy. Musailimah, it may be remembered, was a pseudoprophet and a rebel against the Muslims, and this would also reflect on his adherents.

There is also the instance quoted from 'Abd-ur-Razzāq's compilation of Hadīth, of an Umm Walad

<sup>14.</sup> M. Abu'l-A'la Maudūdī, Murtadd Ki Sazā Islāmi Qānûn Men, pp. 20-1.

(a female slave who had borne a child to her master) turning Christian. Hadrat 'Umar ordered her to be sold to people other than her own co-religionists. If as an apostate she was liable to the death sentence, this decision would be hard to understand. It can only be reconciled with the assumption that there was no such prescribed punishment.

As in the case of the Prophet himself, Hadrat 'Umar too had written to the Christian residents of Najiān, before their banishment, to the effect that any one of them accepting Christianity instead of Islam would lose his protection. They had, it is to be remembered, reverted to Christianity after once joining the Islamic fold. No threat of execution was held out to actual or prospective apostates. This conduct on the part of the Caliph can be of assistance in evaluating the other instances mentioned and would suggest the inference that the element of *ihrāb* (active enmity) must be presumed to exist in those instances in which the death penalty was actually imposed.

## Section III

This brings us to a consideration of instances from Hadrat 'Uthmān's regime. These find place in lesser known compilations of Hadīth like Baihaqī's "Collection," the Kanz al-'Ummāl. They belong to the category not considered reliable by discerning scholars like Shāh Walī Ullāh of Delhi.

The first relevant entry in the Kanz al-'Ummāl

<sup>15.</sup> Al-Zaila'i, Nash al-Rayah li Ahadith al-Hidayah, p. 100.

<sup>16.</sup> Dr M. Hamidullah, Siyāsi Wathiqah-jāt = Urdu translation by Abū Yahyā Imām Khan Nowshehrawi, pp. 115-6.

## Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

ascribes a statement to Hadrat 'Uthmān, on the authority of the Musnad of 'Uthmān, that whosoever becomes a disbeliever after having voluntarily adopted the Faith, he would be killed.<sup>17</sup> This is a bare statement without any information as to the circumstances in which the words were uttered by the Caliph and without reference to any authority in the Qur'ān or the Sunnah. Not much weight can be attached to such abstract sayings, and, if at all, they should be construed as qualified by the requirement of *ihrāb* on the part of the person concerned. That would reconcile the saying with the letter and spirit of the Qur'ān.

The second instance in the Kanz<sup>18</sup> is a report from Sulaimān b. Mūsā that Ḥaḍrat 'Uthmān had called upon a Murtadd three times to recant and then ordered him to be killed, as he refused to comply with the demand. Here, again, the brief account almost amounts to an inferential statement from circumstances that are shrouded in darkness. For all one knows, the man in question may have been a rebel besides being a renegade from the Faith.

Then finally we have the version of 'Abdullah b. Mas'ūd in the  $Kanz^{19}$  that a group of people in Iraq committed apostasy. He wrote to Caliph 'Uthmān regarding them and received the reply that Islam should be presented to them, and if they agreed to accept the Faith, they should be left alone. If they refused, that should be fought against ( $q\bar{a}talahum$ ) as given in one version by a writer in the  $Zam\bar{n}nd\bar{a}r$ . This is clear indi-

<sup>17.</sup> Urdu translation, op. cit., p. 511.

<sup>18.</sup> Ibid., p. 512.

<sup>19,</sup> Ibid., p. 514.

cation that these people were rebels against whom military measures were taken and the instance, therefore, does not warrant the conclusion that peaceful apostasy by itself would have been regarded as punishable.

A review of these cases would not justify the enunciation of a positive principle that even in a case of apostasy, not accompanied by active hostility, the Third Caliph would have ordered the person concerned to be slain. The sayings are bereft of the circumstantial details such as could lend colour to such an inference.

#### Section IV

Hadrat 'Ali's war with the Khwārij (the seceders) is used by some writers as evidence to justify the view that an apostate deserves be be killed. The question whether the Khwarij must be regarded as merely errant Muslims, or a group altogether outside the pale of Islam, seems to have been a matter of controversy between the Doctors of Law. But Hadrat 'Ali's own opinion appears to have been that they had not ceased to be Muslims. In the al-Musawwā Min Ahādīth al-Muwattā', Shāh Walī Ullāh has recorded a report that the Fourth Caliph heard a man proclaim near a mosque: "La hukm illa Lillah"-there is no judgment except that of God-which was the slogan raised by the Khwārij against Hadrat 'Alī for his having agreed to arbitration between him and Mu'awiyah, in respect of succession to the Caliphate. Hadrat 'Alī acknowledged that what the man was saying was correct and told him that he had three things to offer

# Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

them: (i) they will not be prevented from the mosques so that they may remember Allah therein; (ii) they will not be prevented from sharing in Fai' (the booty that accrues to Muslim warriors, without fighting) so long as their hands were with his hands (another version varies this condition to: Whatever they earn will be immune from Fai'); and (iii) the Caliph will not initiate the fighting with them. The implication is clear that Hadrat 'Ali did not regard them as disbelievers. The fighting between the Caliph's forces and the Khwarij resulted from their stand that those who did not share their beliefs were liable to be killed as disbelievers and they actually killed some Muslims who had passed by them, on this plea. Details of their attitude and the consequent fighting are given by several historians including Ibn al-Tiqtiqā (al-Fakhrī)21 and Ibn Athīr (Tā'rīkh al-Kāmil).22 Reference may also be made for support to this view to the Fath al-Bārī.23 M. Sher 'Alī also quotes from Tafsīr al-Kabīr24 to show that most 'Ulama' regarded the Khwarij to be a sect of the Muslims, despite their doctrinal aberrations. Their case is, moreover, distinguishable from that of peaceful apostates because of their taking up arms against the Muslims. No benefit can be gained by sponsors of the punishment theory of apostasy from such an instance.

There is also a report from 'Ikrimah, a freed slave of Ibn 'Abbās, that Hadrat 'Alī had ordered the burning to death of certain heretics (Zanādiqah). Ibn 'Abbās heard of this incident and remarked that he would

<sup>21.</sup> Pp. 114-7.

<sup>22.</sup> Vol. III, pp. 148 et seq.

<sup>23.</sup> Al-'Ainī, 'Umdat al-Qārī, Vols. XI and XII, p. 234.

<sup>24.</sup> Vol. III, p. 614, quoted in Qatl-i-Murtadd aur Islām, p. 164.

have put them to the sword and not subjected them to torture by fire for that method of punishment was forbidden by the Prophet. He then recited the hadith: "Whosever changes his faith shall be killed." This report is included in Sahih al-Bukhārī. 25

'Ainī in his 'Umdat al-Qārī cites an opinion that those persons were followers of Ibn Sabā' who invested Hāḍrat 'Alī with divine status. M. Sher 'Alī has cited² excerpts from Ibn Hazm's al-Faṣl fi'l-Milalwa'l-Ahwā'wa'l-Niḥal and Shahrastānī's al-Milal wa'l-Niḥal which confirm the nefarious role of these people in attempting to create dissensions among Muslims. On the authority of Shahrastānī, it is stated by M. Sher 'Alī that Ḥaḍrat 'Alī had banished Ibn Sabā' to Madā'in on his saying to the Caliph: "Anta anta" (You are, you are—God). So the Sabā'īs were disrupters of the social order and their case would be differentiated from that of simple apostasy, on that ground.

Moreover. Maulānā Abu'l-Jalāl Nadvī A'zamgarhī<sup>27</sup> criticises this report on technical grounds. He says that Ibn 'Umar and Sa'īd b. Muṣayyab charged him with Kidhb (lying) and Ibn Mu'īn did not accept traditions from him as he belonged to the Ṣafarīyyah sect of the Khwārij. His attribution of an act to Ḥaḍrat 'Alī, which was against an injunction issued by the Prophet, is, therefore, open to doubt. According to 'Abdullah b. Ḥārith, Imām Ḥusain son of Ḥaḍrat 'Alī had charged 'İkrimah with fabricating reports against his father<sup>28</sup>

<sup>25.</sup> Arabic-Urdu, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 596.

<sup>26.</sup> Quoted in his Qatl-i-Murtadd aur Islām, p. 67, from Ibn Ḥazm's al-Faṣl, Vol. II, p. 115, and Shahrastani's al-Milal on margin of Ibn Ḥazm's al-Faṣl, p. 167.

<sup>27.</sup> Qatl-i-Murtadd, p. 13.

<sup>28.</sup> Jalal-ud-Din Shams, Islam aur Madhhabi Azadi, pp. 126-8.

# Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

and people did not offer funeral prayers for him when he died. Apart from the question of its authenticity, however, the aptness of this precedent is also questionable, as shown above.

The Kanz al-'Ummāl gives another report<sup>29</sup> from Abī al-Tufail. He was included in an expedition sent by Hadrat 'Alī against Banī Najīyyah. They found them divided into three groups. One group among them said they were Christians initially but had accepted Islam and had held fast to it. The second group declared that they had adhered to their original faith, Christianity. The third group, after becoming Muslims, had reverted to the Christian creed. When called upon to return to Islam, they declined the offer and they were killed in the fighting that ensued and their families were made slaves. It is apparent that this was a case of rebellion combined with apostasy. An expeditionary force had to be sent against them and they were killed in the fighting. The instance does not serve to strengthen the stand of those who would like to make out apostasy to be a crime rather than a sinful transgression.

The same collection of *Ḥadīth* mentions one al-Mastūr or al-Mastūrad b. Qabīṣah as having become a renegade from Islam to Christianity. He admitted this fact when brought before Ḥadṛat 'Alī but he evidently, in the course of conversation with the Caliph, whispered something in his ear which led to his being killed. We are left to conjecture what the nature of the provocation thus offered was and this detracts from the value of this precedent for it is not possible to discover the rationale of the decision given therein. For all we know, he may also have been

<sup>29.</sup> Urdu Translation, op. cit., pp. 517-8.

a Muḥārib, for not much is mentioned about his history.

Both the above two instances are, otherwise too, of weak authority, for they are part of a compilation which does not inspire consummate confidence in its reliability.

An anonymous writer in the Daily Zamīndār dated 11 October 1924, on the authority of Sunan al-Nasā'ī and some lesser known compilations also referred to the rebellion of the people of Hirārā. It is said that Hadrat 'Alī sent Ibn 'Abbās and some other Companions and Anṣār in a delegation to them and two thousand of the rebels reverted to the true faith on their persuasion and the rest were killed. It is clear that here there was a combination of apostasy with rebellion and the instance is not pertinent to the question whether apostasy alone requires to be punished.

A review of the relevant reports pertaining to the Khilā fat-i-Rāshidah thus reveals some incidents which included an element of active hostility to Muslims, justifying violence against persons who had combined apostasy with rebellion. Other incidents in which apparently apostates were punished are either based on reports of dubious authority or, being bereft of antecedent details, do not suffice to furnish adequate guidance as to the rule that should prevail in such cases. In some instances we have merely verbal reports about what was said or done by one of the four rightly-guided Caliphs on some occasion, without any attempt at analysis of the factors that determined the saying or the deed. On the other hand, the absence of action or suggested action in certain instances would seem to militate against the assumption that there was any firmly-established and well-defined precedent governing such cases. There

## Apostasy and the "Khilāfat al-Rāshidah"

is room for raising a presumption in most cases that the delinquent who came in for punishment might have transgressed the bounds of good citizenship or tried to harm the collective interests of the Muslim community and was thus adjudged guilty of an offence calling for extreme treatment by the persons in authority, by way of  $Ta'z\bar{\imath}r$ .

#### Chapter IV

# APOSTASY AND THE FUQAHA'

At the outset, it may be acknowledged that the apparent unanimity among  $Fugah\bar{a}$  on the question of treatment to be meted out to an apostate from Islam strikes one, at first sight, as impressive. Differences, however, exist, firstly, as to whether it is incumbent on the adjudicating authority to afford an opportunity for repentance to the apostate before he is condemned to death and, secondly, as to whether female apostates are to be exempted from this punishment or not. By analogy, some other exemptions have also been the subject of juristic discussions. A useful summary of the principal points involved and the variant opinions expressed thereon would be found in al-Sāmarā'ī's Ahkām al-Murtadd.1 The significance of these differences and their impact on the main point, whether apostasy is a culpable offence, will become apparent after we have surveyed the whole field and are in a position to comment on the rationale of juristic opinion.

The first question formulated by al-Sāmarā'ī, in this context, reads: "When a Muslim commits apostasy, is he to be killed after proof of his apostasy has become available (forthwith) or is he to be called upon to repent? And if he insists on his apostasy, is he to be put to death or given a respite?" The learned author notes that there has been a good deal of controversy between those who deny the necessity of a demand being made for reversion

to the faith and those who are convinced of the obligatory nature of such a step. He quotes from the Rahmat al-Ummah fi Ikhtilāf al-A'immah of al-Dimashqī an extract which epitomises the differences on this point. The latter starts by saying that the A'immah are agreed on the proposition that whosoever forsakes Islam would be liable to the death sentence. Then the consequent procedural steps which have evoked controversy are commented upon. According to him, Imam Abu Hanifah's position was that Istitabah (calling for repentance) was not obligatory and the person concerned should be put to death unless he himself asks for consideration, in which case three days' grace period would be allowed to him. Some of the Imam's followers, however, have opined that even if no respite is solicited, a period of grace should be granted by way of Istihbāb (as a course recommended). Imam Mālik considered a demand for Taubah (repentance) to be obligatory. If the person repents, his Taubah should be accepted. If he is adamant, he should nevertheless receive a respite for three days for he might possibly relent during this period. If he insists on his apostasy after that, he would be killed. To Imam Shafi'i two differing opinions are ascribed on both points, of the necessity for Istitabah and the grace period. Imam Ahmad b. Hanbal is also attributed two variant opinions. It is related from Hasan al-Basrī that there should be no Istitabah and the person should be slain immediately. 'Ata' makes a distinction between a person born a Muslim and a disbeliever accepting Islam and then becoming a renegade. In the case of the former, no demand for repentance would be made, but in the case of the latter, this would be necessary. There seems to be apparently no rational basis for such a distinction. Form Sufyan al-

Thaurī the tradition has been handed down that the opportunity for repentance should extend over the lifetime of the delinquent, and this was also the opinion of Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī who was the teacher of the teacher of Imām Abū Ḥanīfah. Ibn al-Qudāmah² interprets this dictum of al-Nakha'ī to mean that the apostate can never be killed (Lā yugtal abadan).

From among the Imamiyyah, al-Tusi has expressed the opinion that the call for repentance should be made twice and that this was necessary. He has, however, stated in another place that there was no legal justification for fixing any time-limit for repentance and has cited an instance wherein Hadrat 'Alī had demanded reversion to the faith from a Muslim who had become a Christian and, as he declined the offer, he was killed. Referring to the hadith: "Whosoever changes his faith shall be killed," he has explained that it apparently did not sanction a demand for repentance. Somewhat inconsistently. Tūsī in a later part of his book, Tahdhīb al-Ahkām, has cited a report from Sahl b. Zivād that Hadrat 'Alī had prescribed a three days' grace period after a demand for repentance had been made. Al-Nahwi and al-Sayaghi from among the Zaidiyyah favour three days' respite after the call for Taubah.

Imām Ibn Taimīyyah, of the Zāhirī school of thought, did not regard it obligatory to make a call for repentance before inflicting the penalty of death for apostasy. He derived strength for his view from the tradition which says that a person who quits the faith and separates himself from the Islamic community is liable to be killed, and added that the Prophet had not prescribed.

Istitabah, though he directed that if such a person repents, he is to be left unmolested. The reason is that the call to the faith had already reached him earlier, as contrasted with the case of a Kāfir al-Aṣlī—a disbeliever continuing as such. Apparently Imām Ibn Taimīyyah also considered that the cases of Ibn Abi Sarḥ, Muqais b. Ṣabābah. 'Abdullah b. Khaṭal, and others, and the people of 'Urīnah supported his stand. Al-Sāmarā'i himself observes that these instances are not apt as they are distinguishable on facts and the persons concerned were guilty of active opposition to Islam or had murdered Muslims, and these were not instances of simple apostasy. We have also discussed these cases earlier and arrived at a similar conclusion.

The opinion of Sarakhsi (Hanafi) is then cited from his Mabsut that the respite of three days is based on the analogy of Khiyār—option of rejection, in a sale transaction, within three days. The analogy is by no means helpful, for a conversion or reversion to a creed, being a matter of conscience, cannot be equated with a profane sale transaction which connotes a dealing between two persons, for a consideration. Sarakhsi evidently seeks to follow the practice of Hadrat 'Umar in allowing a threeday grace period for repentance. Al-Sāmarā'ī also adverts to al-Muhalla of the Zahiriyyah Imam, Ibn Hazm, wherein it is mentioned that practice has varied from a three-fold demand for repentance coupled with a respite of three days or even one day's or a whole month's grace period as was apparently adopted by Hadrat 'Ali, in one case. Al-Sāmarā'ī's own predilection is for the matter of the respite period being left to the discretion of the Imam or sovereign authority, who will determine the issue, having regard to all the circumstances of a case.

In any event, he thinks, the period fixed should be adequate for ensuring sufficient time for full consideration of his opinion by the delinquent. Specially would this procedure be appropriate, according to him, when a whole group of apostates has to be dealt with collectively, and fortifies himself by citing the opinion of Sarakhsi to the same effect.

On the authority of 'Umdat al-Qārī, Irshād al-Sārī (these two being commentaries on Ṣaḥāḥ al-Buhhārī) and Sunan of Abī Dāwūd with its commentary by al-Suyūtī, he states that the Prophet himself had accepted the Taubah of several apostates. But Ibn Qudāmah Hanbalī would deny an opportunity for repentance to a Zindīq (heretic) who conceals his disbelief, for his outward show of belief would not improve matters. Such a stance would seem to run counter to the express injunctions contained in some ahādīth and to the practice of the Prophet in dealing with hypocrites.

Al-Ṣabāgh, from among the Shāfi'iyyah, would accept the Taubah of a Zindīq also, for, he says, it is immaterial whether such a person's Kufr comes out in the open or is concealed. In one of his statements, Imām Ahmad b. Hanbal has drawn on Zaidīyyah view for a similar opinion, in his al-Baḥr al-Zakhkhār. Al-Sāmarā'ī apparently approves of this stand. The learned author then discusses certain other specific cases, e.g. a person who abuses God or His Messenger, or is a sorcerer, and quotes opinions of certain jurists that the perpetrators of such offences cannot be forgiven. In support, some of them cite verse 49 from Sūrat al-Nisā': "Verily Allah forgives not that a partner should be ascribed to Him. He forgives (all) save that to whom He will." This text would not, in the humble opinion of the present writer,

justify the delinquent's punishment, necessarily in this world—like other forms of *Kufr* (disbelief).

Al-Sāmarā'ī then takes up the question as to whether Taubah of a person who repeatedly changes his faith should be accepted without any limitation or not. This is also a subject of controversy among Fuqahā' (jurists). Ibn Qudāmah in his al-Mughnā favours acceptance every time that such an occasion arises and he cites an impressive list of authorities in support of this proposition, though he also notes some dissenting views. He relies on verse 138 of Sūrat al-Nisā': "Lo! those who believe, then disbelieve, and then increase in disbelief, Allah will never pardon them, nor will He guide them to the (right) way," and verse 39 of Sūrat al-Anfāl: "Tell those who disbelieve that if they cease (from persecution of believers that which is past will be forgiven them."

Al-Subkī has quoted an opinion from al-Shāfi'ī, in his al-Saif al-Maslul (to which al-Samara'i had access, in its manuscript form) that every time an apostate reverts to the faith, opportunity for repentance has to be allowed and that the Prophet had given such opportunity to one, Rayan, four or five times. He then quotes the opinion of Ibn Wahb that Istitabah is to be available always and every time there is change of faith, on the authority of Imam Shafi'i, Imam Ahmad and Ibn al-Qavyim. There are opinions available of Imam Shaf'i and al-Sabagh from among Shāfi'is, of Imām Muhammad from among the Hanafiyyah and Ibn al-Oayvim of the Zāhirīyyah, in accord with this view as evidenced by al-Umm and al-Shāmil (manuscript) of the first two and of al-Mabsūt of Imam Muhammad (manuscript). To Ishaq he ascribes the view that the apostate must be killed on the fourth occasion of his reversion. The Hanbalis, however, generally,

deny opportunity for repentance to a person who repeats his apostasy, and reference is made to al-Kāfī of Ibn Qudāmah, Muntahī al-Arādāt of Ibn al-Najjār, Manār al-Sabīl of Ibn Duyān and Hidāyat al-Rāghib of 'Uthmān. This opinion they base on verse 138 of Sūrat al-Nisā' set out above and verse 91 of Al-i-'Imrān: "Surely those who disbelieve after their belief and then increase in disbelief, their repentance shall not be accepted and these are they who have gone astray," and add that the repetition of their offence indicates the corruption of their creed and their scant regard for Islam.

To the superficial observer, verses 90 and 91 of Sūrah Āl-i-'Imrān may present a problem in so far as the former talks of God accepting repentance from apostates in general terms, and the latter declares that the Taubah of those who increase in disbelief (or, as Pickthall has it, "have grown violent in their disbelief") shall not be accepted. Ibn Jarir Tabari in his Jāmi' al Bayān has tried to resolve the apparent conflict by suggesting that the latter ayah applies to Jews who had entertained belief in the advent of the Prophet of Islam but, when he appeared, they declined to accept him and thus became disbelievers, and that their increase in disbelief refers to sins they committed in that state. It is these sins, according to him, that shall not be forgiven, unless they first discard their disbelief in the Prophet. It is not intended to lay down, he says, that God will not accept genuine repentance after disbelief, from His servants, for He has promised to accept it from all disbelievers or sinners.

Shaikh Ismā'il Haqqī in his  $R\bar{n}h$  al-Bayān' offers the comment that the verse only means that God will not guide them so long as they persist in their liking for

<sup>3.</sup> Vol. I, p. 344.

disbelief and when they revert to the truth, they will again receive guidance. As has been observed earlier, the author of *Bahr al-Mulāt* records the opinion that meaning of "and who increase in disbelief" is that they complete their disbelief and die as disbelievers—that is to say, these people only would have no forgiveness. "Increase in disbelief" obviously requires an extended period of time for its actualisation.

Rāzī in his Tafsīr al-Kabīr has given several alternative interpretations of verse 91 of Āl-i-'Imrān, and these have been noticed by us earlier, in the section relating to Qur'ānic āyāt bearing on apostasy. Others have also made attempts at reconciliation of these verses. Hasan, Qatādah, 'Aṭā' and Zamakhsharī say that if an apostate repents on his death-bed, this shall not be accepted from him, on the authority of verse 19 of Sūrat al-Nisā'. Qāḍī 'Abd-ul-Jabbār, Qifāl and Ibn Anbārī suggest that verse 91 of Āl-i-'Imrān applies to those who apostatise a second time after reverting to the true Faith—their second apostasy would wipe out the effect of even their first Taubah. Another suggestion made by certain scholars is that Taubah of those who increase in disbelief is not acceptable, as they never repented of their original apostasy.

The words of the āyah are, however, general and should be so understood as applying to all Murtadān (apostates) from Islam and the words ba'da īmāni-him (after they have believed) apply to Muslims who become renegades. Wherever reference is made to Jews and Christians in the Qur'ān they are specifically described as Ahl al-Kitāb (People of the Scriputure). It has been suggested that in verse 91, the non-acceptance should be understood as referring to their first Taubah, the effect of which has been taken away by their subsequent perfidious conduct.

Verse 18 of al-Nisā' is also pertinent in this context: "Forgiveness is only incumbent on Allah towards those who do evil in ignorance and then repent soon after (min qarib). These are they towards whom Allah relents. Allah is All-Knowing, Wise." The words in the āyah, bi-jihālat, have been rendered as "in ignorance". But the word jahl and its derivatives are also used in the Our'an for acts known to be evil but of whose effects the perpetrator is ignorant. An example is furnished by verse 90 of Sūrah Yūsuf: "He said, 'Do you know what you did to Joseph and his brother, in your ignorance?" The end-words there are Izantum jāhilun. The brothers of Joseph knew that what they were doing was wrong, though they may not have adverted to its evil consequences. Kufr (disbelief) is the highest form of "evil"—Mufradāt al-Qur'ān of Imām Rāghib Isfahānī bears this out. Tabarī in his Jāmi' al-Bayān4 cites a saying of Ibn 'Abbās: "Whosoever does an evil act, he is ignorant." Again, the words min qarīb which were generally translated as "soon after" have a more comprehensive connotation. Tabari has cited several opinions in his Jāmi' al-Bayān<sup>5</sup> that garīb in this verse means, according to consensus, "time of death"—that is, repentance is possible except for an actual death-bed repentance. 'Ainī in his 'Umdat al-Oārī' interprets the phrase "increase in disbelief" as meaning that they go on intensifying disbelief till they die and their repentance at the time of death would not be accepted. These comments indicate that the door of repentance is not closed even to hardened disbelievers during their lifetime.

<sup>4.</sup> Vol. IV, p. 187.

<sup>5.</sup> Vol. III, pp. 174-6.

<sup>6.</sup> Vol. XI and XII, p. 233.

This opinion appears to accord well with the view of al-Thaurī and al-Nakha'ī that time for repentance must extend over the lifetime of the person concerned and cannot be limited. There is also a hadīth narrated by Abū Hurairah in Sahīth Muslim that if a person repents before the sun rises from the west (before Doomsday), God accepts his penitance. That is only a forceful way of saying that the possibility of repentance is open throughout the terrestrial space of human life.

The limitation of the grace period does not reveal a general agreement, even among the Saḥābah (Companions) and, evidently, their varying opinions were based on their individual Ijtihād (judgment). Similar is the case with Fugahā' (jurists) who had differing approaches to this question. If we find that any one opinion out of them is more in consonance with the letter and spirit of the Our'anic text and the established practice of the Prophet, we can adopt it as the norm for decision. This procedure would be in keeping with what the great Imams had themselves counselled their followers to do. In the Hujjat Allah al-Bālighah, Shāh Walī Ullāh gives an extract from 'Allamah Sha'rani's al-Yuwaqit wa'l-Jawāhir, which is instructive. Says Sha'rānī: "This is also reported from the Imam [Abū Hanīfah] that whenever he expressed an opinion, he would say: 'This is the opinion of Nu'man b. Thabit. I have exerted to the utmost to arrive at that view which strikes me as best of all. But if someone is in the know of something better, then the correct position would be that that should be followed and what I have said should be discarded." Imam Malik also used to declare: "There

<sup>7.</sup> Mishkāt al-Maṣābiḥ—Walī-ud-Dīn Khatīb 'Umrī' = Arabic-Urdu by S. Nā'ib Naqwī and M. Muḥammad 'Alī, Vol. I, p. 523.

is no one, except the Messenger of God, among whose sayings there will not be some that are acceptable and some that are worth rejection." Hākim and Baihaqī have also quoted Imām Shāfi'ī's dictum: "If you come across an authentic hadīth, that is my creed also." Similarly, Imām Ahmad b. Hanbal used to say: "As compared with the word of God and of His Messenger, no statement by any other person deserves to be regarded." As we have discussed in the section relating to the Qur'ānic texts bearing on apostasy, some of them clearly contemplate the natural death of the apostate in due course, one result of which will be that all his good actions will be wiped out—al-Baqarah, verses 162 and 218, and Āl-i-'Imrān, verse 92.

If then the view of al-Nakha'i be preferred, that no limitation as to time can be imposed on the time allowed for repentance, on the ground that it is in harmony with the Qur'ānic text and not in conflict with the Sunnah, it would clearly follow that an apostate cannot be subjected to any pressure, physical or otherwise, nor can he be punished for his peaceful apostasy, though goodly exhortation may be utilised to persuade him to change his belief. For he has a whole lifetime available for reconsideration of his position, short of the actual moment of death.

The question arises: what, then, are the grounds on which the seemingly unanimous opinion of jurists that an apostate should be put to death, is based? In his Ahkam al-Murtadd, al-Sāmaiā'ī states that an apostate has to be killed only by order of the person in authority

<sup>8.</sup> Shah Wali Ullah, *Hujjat Allah al-Balighah*=Urdu translation by M. Abd-ur-Rahim, Vol. 1, p. 701.

<sup>9.</sup> Pp. 212-3.

(Imam), for his slaying is obligatory in respect of a right of Allah as contrasted with a private person's right. He makes an exception in favour of a person who acts as an envoy on behalf of disbelievers, for the Messenger of God had forbidden the killing of Musailimah's envoys. Then the learned author mentions the dialogue between Ibn Qudāmah and the Prophet as to the propriety of killing a disbeliever who, in the course of a fight, declares his faith in Islam and points out that the mere profession of such faith would confer immunity on the person concerned, without any probing into the genuineness of his conversion. He comments that if, by a mere declaration of faith, a person can secure his life, then (it follows that) if he disbelieves in Islam, he should forfeit it, for "whoever has the power to bestow has also the power to take away". This, with all respect, appears to be at best a specious reasoning. The analogy of an unconditional gift being withdrawn by a donor would not be apt in such a case. Even if it be true that a man can save his life by a simple declaration of faith, it does not follow that the converse proposition, that a renegade loses his life, should also be true. Here there is an obvious fallacy.

But the main reason for punishing an apostate is expressed by al-Sāmarā'ī in these words:

Again, Islam is not merely a religion but also a nationality, and rebellion against it would mean deprivation of this nationality. For such an act would be treachery and change from co-citizenship to enmity, as has been explained by Shaikh Aḥmad Ibrāhīm (in Majallat al-Qānān al-Miṣrīyyah). The apostate causes others to imagine that Islam is lacking in goodness and thus prevents them from (accepting) it. Consequently he commits an offence not only against his own person but against others also. A disbeliever, if he sticks to his disbelief, is excusable in the eye of people, for one

reason or another. But, after he has been introduced to Islam and has been united with his Maker, what is his excuse? Says Sayyid Qutb (in his Fī Zilāl al-Qur'ān): Disbelief that precedes belief is forgiven. For one who has not seen the light may be excused it he walks in darkness. But for disbelief after acceptance of the Faith, there can be no forgiveness and no excuse. Verily disbelief is a veil. When it is lifted, man's nature is united with his Maker, the strayed camel is joined to the caravan and the plant is connected with its source-spring. Those who become renegades after that, they calumniate their nature, deliberately insist on their error and adopt arrogance and waywardness.

There is no forgiveness after that and no guidance. They lead their souls voluntarily towards destruction and specially when apostasy is repeatedly committed by them, after they have believed: "Lo! those who believe, then disbelieve, and then (again) believe, then disbelieve and then increase in disbelief, Allah will never pardon them nor will He guide them unto a way"—Sūrat al-Nisā', verse 138. Their increase in disbelief is the natural result of their backsliding and their straying into error after having received guidance. That is their last opportunity to follow the just and well-defined path.10

All that can be said about this kind of reasoning is that it fails to convince the modern mind which is conditioned by rationalism. And Islam being Din al-Fitrah, the religion of Nature, would favour rational thinking. It does not stand to reason that a person who at any time accepts the true faith and is later assailed by doubts should be in a worse position than a confirmed and hardended disbeliever.

A typical illustration of the orthodox attitude towards apostasy is furnished by the discussion included in al-Sāmarā'ī's book on the position of one who is compelled to accept the true faith. By and large, the opinions

<sup>10.</sup> Al-Samara'î, op. cit., pp. 212-3.

<sup>11.</sup> Ibid., pp. 72-4.

collected therein favour the view that if such a person reverts to his original faith, after the compulsive pressure is removed, he would not be regarded as an apostate and would not be liable to punishment. Sarakhsī is quoted as saying that there was only an outward manifestation of Islam, on his part, under the shadow of the sword and, therefore, inference is that he never really believed. It is strange that an exactly similar situation arising on the Istitābah of a Muslim who commits apostasy does not attract the same principle in the writings of these savants. Al-Samara'i, while agreeing with the dictum of al-Sarakhsi, generally, adds by way of exception that in respect of a Faria al-Harbi al-Murtadd (a hostile apostate who separates from the community), the acceptance of apparent reversion to the faith under coercion would be regarded as permissible, for he is compelled to the truth. But that clearly negatives the Our'anic injunction: La ikrāha fi'd-dīn (there is no compulsion in religion). He enunciates clearly the principle at one place that "one who does not believe in Islam with his heart remains a disbeliever, and he has no share in Islam, irrespective of whether compulsion or coercion is permissible in his case or not, for one cannot attain to Islam, without belief, in a state of full possession of reason." He says further: "Faith is born of belief on the part of an independent person who has unfettered power of choice," and quotes the above verse in support. However, somewhat inconsistently, he adds in the end: "But coercion exercised over an apostate to make him revert to the faith, on pain of being killed (is an exception), for this is a matter established by Nass (well-defined text), and it is not possible to vary that decision by Ijtihad. The reason he gives for this opinion is that he had voluntarily accepted

Islam initially, had become familiar with the faith and then defected from it, and that is a different case from that of a person who never believed and never accepted Islam under duress. One may wonder why the principle should change in the circumstances visualised, when one remembers that faith has relation to genuine belief and not a mere show of it, under coercion.

In the tenth volume of his Mabsut in Bab "Ahkam al-Murtaddīn, '' Sarakhsī has taken his stand on the Our'ānic verse: "Say unto those of the wandering Arabs who were left behind: You will be called against a folk of mighty prowess, to fight them until they surrender" (Surat al-Fath, verse 17), and which was revealed in respect of the apostates, according to one opinion. He also cites the hadith: "Whosoever changes his faith, slay him," and argues that apostates are worse than polytheists and to the latter the Muslims can offer only one of two alternatives-Islam or the sword. On the last two points enough has been said earlier. According to the generally accepted view, the verse cited concerns those hypocritical Bedouin tribes who had contrived to lag behind when the Prophet went to Mecca for the 'Umrah (lesser pilgrimage) from where he returned with the conclusion of the Peace of Hudaibiyyah. Exegetists do not, by and large, agree with Sarakhsī that the verse refers to Murtaddīn. The verse, according to the most favoured construction, contains a prophecy that the Muslims would come into conflict with the Byzantine and Iranian Empires whose subjects were people "of mighty powers".12 apparently interprets the word yuslimuna occurring in the verse as meaning "until they become Muslims" instead of "until they surrender". It is well

known that the Iranians and the Byzantines were defeated by the Muslims during Hadrat 'Umar's time, but they did not immediately become Muslims though they had surrendered to them and become subservient to them.

The suggestion, therefore, that God's word called upon Muslims to fight these peoples till they accepted Islam would be contrary to historical facts and, therefore, the interpretation adopted by most translators that they would become subservient to the Muslims is to be preferred. The peace treaty of Bait al-Mugaddas was signed between Hadrat 'Umar and the Byzantines, in the sixteenth year of Hijrah and Iran was conquered in the twenty-first year of Hijrah. Conversions to Islam took place later, during the reign of Marwan b. Hakam and the regime of 'Umar b. 'Abd-ul-'Azîz of the Umayyad family. Ibn Athir in his Nihāyah fī Gharīb al-Hadīth has given one meaning of the word aslama to be "he became obedient, or submissive" as in the Prophet's saying in which he declared that there is a Satan with every person, but "I have made my 'Satan' submissive to myself."

Shāh Walī Ullāh in his Hujjat Allāh al-Balighah<sup>13</sup> has attempted to justify the orthodox line by observing that apostasy would amount to rank impertinence in respect of God Almighty and would defeat the Divine objective of making truth prevail and of establishing its unquestioned authority. Citing the hadīth: "Whosoever changes his faith must be killed," he explains that, in such a case, it is necessary to subject the renegade from the faith to condign punishment, for tolerance of such an incident and overlooking it would open the door wide to lowering the prestige of the true faith and would amount

<sup>13.</sup> Urdu translation, op. cit., Vol. II, pp. 630, 661-2.

to insulting it. He expresses the view that God Almighty would be pleased if the faith He has revealed should become (so to speak) man's second nature. The question at once arises whether a coercive process could ensure such a laudable result. And in the face of the explicit Qur'anic verses which have been discussed earlier, is it to be presumed that the defection from the faith, by an insignificant human, would detract from the majesty of the Self-Sufficient Almighty? If the Qur'anic texts are given their full force, any attempt to coerce a reluctant person to believe would be contrary to the Divine scheme of things.

A modern scholar has offered the following observations in this matter: "Islam is not a religion but a whole way of life. . . . A community organised as a State can with difficulty find room within its boundaries for people who differ from it on fundamentals which are the basis of that community." Regarding Dhimmis, in his opinion, the Islamic State tolerates them and those actions of theirs which do not directly conflict with the basis of the community, "as Islam is not without hope in respect of human nature,"14 and expects till the last that they may see the light of truth in the end. Again, one might, with respect, query whether human nature ceases to be human nature, in the case of an apostate. The argument is pushed to its logical conclusion by the learned scholar when he postulates that a person who disagrees with the basis of organised society has only two alternatives open to him: he may either go out of the bundaries of the society's operation or submit to deprivation of all rights as a citizen. The latter state, according to him, would be

<sup>14.</sup> M. Abu'l-A'lā Maudūdī, Murtadd Ki Sazā Islāmī Qāuān Men, pp. 45-8.

worse than death and, therefore, it would be better to kill him, for a rightless person would be a danger to the society.15 But would the creation of a veritable fifth column with the organised society, in the shape of hypocrites who have been coerced under the shadow of the sword, to make a verbal but dishonest declaration of faith, redound to its security and stability? The dissident defector may have been assailed by genuine doubts and, unless he himself is persuaded to see the error of his thinking, how is he to be convinced where the truth lies? To each group of humans, as the Our'an declares, its own creed is made to appear fair, and who but the Supreme Being should be the arbiter between truth and falsehood? That function He has reserved to Himself for decision on Doomsday, and who are we to accelerate the Divine pace of requital for His disobedience in a field which is His preserve? To invest one group of human beings with the sole authority to decide such a question would lead to internecine warfare among organised communities. Providence has made this earthly sojourn a trial for us all and coercion or duress in this field would. as several exegetists of the Our'an have declared, make the concept of trial meaningless. Moreover, the practice of the Prophet at Medina16 in having a pact with the non-Muslims for certain State purposes and leaving them free to profess and follow their own religions, with equal political benefits to all parties, points to another alternative solution besides the two visualised by Maulana Maudūdī. The question may weil be posed: Is it possible to have a State peopled purely by persons professing a single faith? It will be shutting one's eyes to reality

<sup>15,</sup> Ibid.

Dr M. Ḥamīdullah, Siyāsī Wathiqah-jāt = Urdu translation by M. Abū Yaḥyā Imām Khān Nowshehrawī, pp. 19-24.

to imagine that such a State, with the world system of today, could be set up with such exclusiveness.

Another big chink in the armour of those who uphold the orthodox view about the apostate's punishment is furnished by the exemption approved by the Hanafivyah and the Imamiyyah in favour of females and the reasons adduced in support of that exemption. A brief reference to that aspect of the problem has already been made earlier. Al-Sāmarā'ī has given a long extract from al-Mabsūt of Sarakhsī in which he has referred to three ahādīth according to which the Prophet disapproved of the killing of women on the ground that they do not possess the capacity to fight. 17 Sarakhsī says in this context: "And in this [the instances cited from the Prophet] there is specification that justification for killing is on the ground of qitāl (fighting) and women do not participate in fighting. In this respect there is no difference between original disbelief and adopted disbelief." He then goes on to explain that the slaying is not requital for apostasy but that penalty is justified having regard to insistence on disbelief. This piece of subtle reasoning it would be difficult to accept. Further on, he expresses himself in these terms: "Change of faith and original disbelief are among the principal offences, but they are between the servant and his Lord. Consequently, their requital is postponed to the Hereafter. And what is hastened in this world by way of prescribed punishments is on account of interests that pertain to God's servants, like Qiṣāṣ (penalty for murder) for the security of life; the punishment for fornication for protection of ancestry and the bed; the punishment for theft for the protection of property: the punishment for slander for the protection of

honour and dignity; and the punishment for drinking for the preservation of the senses. By insistence on disbelief, a person wages war against the Muslims and so he is killed to remove the hostility. For God Almighty has expressly specified the ground for it at places, e.g. the verse: "If they fight you, then slay them" (al-Baqarah, verse 191). He makes explicit the cause that brings about the ground, at places, and that is association with God. So when it is established that the slaying is with reference to militancy, she will not be killed for original disbelief or for adopted disbelief, but will be imprisoned."

Similar opinions are recorded in the *Hidāyah* of Marghinānī, the *Fatḥ al-Qadīr* of Ibn al-Hammām, in Chalpī's gloss on the margin of *Fatḥ al-Qadīr*, in Ṭaḥāwī's *Kitāb al-Siyar* and in 'Asqalānī's *Fatḥ al-*

Bārī.18

If the true reason for slaying of an apostate is Muhāribah (active hostility or militancy), then the justification for the slaying of a peaceful male apostate who does not wish to give up his allegiance to the Islamic State would go by the board, on identical reasoning. That seems to explain the reason why Ibn Hayyān in his Bahr al-Muhāt says in his commentary on the verse: "There is no compulsion in religion," that a person who forsakes Islam for another religion cannot be compelled to revert to Islam, according to one opinion, for this would destroy the concept of this phenomenal world being Dār al-Ibtilā' (house of trial) and a place wherein duties are imposed. This important pro-

<sup>18.</sup> Sharh Fath al-Qadīr (Ibn Hammām) 'ala'l-Hidāyah Sharh Badāyat al-Mubtadī (Marghinānī) and on its margin Sharh al-'Ināyah 'ala'l-Hidāyah (Bābartī) and comments of Chalpī, Vol. IV, p. 29. Ibn Ḥajar 'Asqalānī, Fath al-Bārī, Vol. XII, pp 33: Abū Ja'far Taḥāvī, Sharh Ma'ānī al-Āthār, Vol. II, p. 34.

nouncement is in perfect harmony with the modern concepts of human organisation.

That Kufr (disbelief) by itself does not justify shedding of blood and that only active hostility can provide the sanction for it, has been formulated as a basic principle by Shaikh Mahmud Shaltut of al-Azhar, in his al-Islām, 'Aqīdah wa Sharī'ah, 19 and again in his Tafsir al Qur'an al-Karim20 while interpreting Surat al-An'am, verse 159: "And that you slay not the life that Allah has made sacred." Al-Sāmarā'ī has also quoted the dictum in his Ahkam al Murtadd21 and has further added that it is supported by what is said by Ibn Dagig in Ahkām al-Ahkām Sharh 'Umdat al Ahkām and by San'ani's opinion included in his al-'Addah 'ala Ahkām al-Ahkām. The extract from Ibn Dagig's book, included in Ahkām al-Murtadd, concerns the question whether a Muslim who does not offer prayers is to be killed or not. According to him, he cannot be slain for this offence, unless he takes up arms against the Muslims on this issue. He then makes the following apt observations:

There is difference between Muqātalah (mutal fighting) over an issue and Qatl (slaying) on its account. For Muqātalah is mutual action which requires participation by two parties and from permission to fight over the issue of prayer, when fighting arises over it; it does not necessarily follow that it is permissible to slay a person not offering prayers, even when he does not fight over it.

San'ānī, while agreeing with this opinion, cites the instance of persons who decline to pay Zakāt. In such a case, he says, the Zakāt will be taken from them by

<sup>19.</sup> Pp. 300-1.

<sup>20.</sup> P. 427.

<sup>21,</sup> Pp. 114-5.

force and there will be no fighting and no killing, unless they initiate a fight, themselves.

The argument that a Muslim who has become an apostate deserves to be treated differently because he had received the call to the truth, and had believed in it at one time, seems to be devoid of substance. If this theory has any merit, what would be said of non-Muslim scholars who have devoted a lifetime to the study of the Our'an and the Islamic system of thought and action and have still adhered to their own faiths? Has not the call reached them and are they not offering an affront to the True Religion by their omission to accept Islam? The non-Muslim missionaries, some of whom invent all kinds of calumnies against Islamshould they not be held guilty of contempt of God's Word? If pushed to its extreme conclusion, this theory would involve Muslims in war with practically all disbelievers, within our country or without. Such an eventuality is not contemplated by the Our'an or the Sunnah of the Prophet and it must be firmly held that the affront hypothesis has no rational basis. Neither authority nor reason would sanction the spirit of belligerency underlying this hypothesis. The myth that Islam was spread by the sword has been exploded by the writings of some of the fair-minded Western savants themselves. For illustration, one may refer to the scholarly work of Sir Thomas Arnold, The Preaching of Islam. Islam owes its success as a missionary religion to its freedom from irrational dogma and its principles of Divine Unity and human equality and fraternity which cut across the divisive factors of race, colour or geography, and the personal examples of service and piety on the part of devotees of the faith. Some zealots may have over-

stepped the bounds of fair dealing, at times in our history, but there are exceptional occurrences of little significance in our collective ethos.

The enthusiasm for conformism has led some of our scholars to advocate the idea that an Islamic State cannot permit non-Muslims residing within its boundaries to propagate their own faith among Muslims, though they could allow them to do so among other non-Muslims and to teach their own children the tenets of their faith and, in the process, to subject the teachings of Islam also to balanced criticism. 22 This stance seems to be influenced by totalitarian ideas such as prevail under Fascist or Communist regimes and it may be humbly suggested that such a concept is not in keeping with the spirit of the Qur'an or the Sunnah of the Prophet. There is the classical instance of the Prophet allowing the Christian delegation from Najran to stay in his own mosque and to perform their worship rites therein. He debated the questions pertaining to the Faith with them and when he found them to be impervious to rational argument, he challenged them to Mubahalah (mutual invocation of the Curse of God on the group that takes a false stand), but the Christians fought shy of it. He did not bar their right to advocate the truth of their own creed. Islam must stand on the excellence of its own teachings and needs no protective shield against exchange of views at the intellectual level. Indeed a missionary religion like Islam must be prepared for discussion of the relative merits of various religious beliefs, in the field of comparative study, before it can hope to convince others of its own superiority, of course within the bounds of decency and decorum.

A careful study of the fundamentals of our religion and our history can fairly lead to the inference that apostasy alone, unalloyed by hostility to the established order, is not amenable to the disciplining dictates of any human tribunal but that punishment for an offence of this nature must be left to the All-Wise Creator Himself. The instances in which apostates forfeited their lives in the lifetime of the Prophet or during the regime of the Rightly-Guided Caliphs do not justify a general rule that a non-militant apostate must be put to death. In most of these cases there was superadded to the change of faith an element of rebellion against the State or hostility to the Muslims. In those days, it was, in all probability, a legitimate presumption to make that a person forsaking the Islamic fold would join the ranks of enemies of the Muslims, and history seems to bear out this presumption. Consequently in the writings of the old jurists, the distinction between apostasy simpliciter and active hostility to the community came to be blurred and, in the course of time, the presumption hardened into the rule that an apostate, unless he repents, must be condemned to death.

The historical incidents involving such condemnation can be very appropriately referred to the principle of  $Ta'z\bar{\imath}r$ —a punishment devised by the sovereign authority, as an expedient step to safeguard the collective interest, in the circumstances prevailing at the relevant times. For such disciplinary measures, the governing principle is thus stated by Dr 'Abd al-Ḥamīd, Professor, Law Faculty, Alexandria University of Egypt, in his  $Mub\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$   $Niz\bar{\imath}m$  al-Ḥuhm fi'l-Islām.

It must be noted that those who talk of apostasy being an offence entailing the death sentence do not class it as among the

Jara'im al-Hudud (offences with invite punishment prescribed in the Qur'an). For apostasy is categorised by the learned, as among al-Jara'im al-Ta'zīrīvyah (offences which attract  $T\bar{a}'z\bar{\imath}r$ —punishment emanating from the competent authority), and it is known that there is an important distinction between Jara'im al-Hudud and Jara'im al-Ta'zīrīyyah. The distinction lies in this that punishment in the case of Ta'zīrīvvah offences is not determined (that is, fixed beforehand) as contrasted with the cases of offences inviting Hudūd. The preferred opinion among the Fugaha is that the determination of punishment for Tā'zīrīyvah offences is left to (the discretion of) the person in authority (to one who has the authority to pass judgment), and it follows that he can fix any of the punishments except for the sentence of death, in conformity with what would suit the circumstances of the community. And for a long time, this matter has been relegated to determination by the person in authority. Thus there is no obligation to fix a punishment for an action if the collective interest does not require its determination.

The upshot of the discussion is that the  $Fugah\bar{a}$ , though seemingly upholding an almost agreed doctrine of death for apostasy, vet reveal a variety of opinions as to the rationale of such punishment. They, directly or indirectly, all accept that active hostility is the real justification for harshness to apostates. Basing themselves, as they do, on historical instances which involved such hostility to the community, they felt no necessity to differentiate between peaceful conversions to other faiths and violent defections. Some old as well as modern jurists have taken pains to clarify that disbelief, whether original or adopted, does not per se justify the shedding of blood, and this clearly creates a considerable rift in the seeming facade of what is claimed to be a consensus on the subject. There is also a parallel strain of human compassion and understanding, based on the Word of God, clearly discernible in the writings of those who would allow a whole lifetime for repentance to the renegade,

which practically means the negation of any punishment for apostasy. The result thus arrived at, by an indirect route, accords well with the Divine Dispensation, and further strengthens the inference that a peaceful conversion of a Muslim to another faith is not actionable.

#### Chapter V

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The Qur'an gives us in unambiguous terms the fundamentals of the Islamic faith and sets out the basic principles which should govern an Islamic polity. A principle that stands out conspicuously in the sociopolitical dispensation of the Book of God is epitomised in the noble words: "There is no compulsion in religion." This principle finds endorsement in several other verses of the Qur'an, which manifestly tolerate, though they disapprove of, divergences from the Straight Path. The highest value is attached to the condition of the mind and heart of a person as compared to lip-service to the ideals of the good life, and the test of right-mindedness is to be manifested in deeds and not mere words. Man is free to choose between truth and falsehood and the Prophet's function is to convey the message, exemplify it in his own life and to leave the rest to God—he is no warder over men to compel them to adopt particular beliefs. Liberty of conscience is thus a value of good life itself and mus the kept in view when studying the incidents and effect of ahadith, the practice during the Rightly-Guided Caliphate or the opinions of Doctors of Law which must not depart from the letter or the spirit of God's Word. The fountainhead of wisdom and guidance is the Our'an, and the injunctions contained therein must be accorded a status akin to that of a fundamental constitutional law, in the light of which all affairs in the socio-political field are to be regulated and interpreted.

Our study of the relevant Qur'anic verses establishes

#### Summary and Conclusions

that the punishment for apostasy is postponed to the Hereafter, in the same way as that for original disbelief. There is absolutely no mention in the Qur'an of mundane punishment for defection from the faith by a believer, except in the shape of deprivation of the spiritual benefits of Islam or of the civil status and advantages that accrue to an individual as a member of the well-knit fraternity of Muslims. He should, however, be free to profess and propagate the faith of his choice, so long as he keeps within the bounds of law and morality, and to enjoy all other rights as a peaceful citizen of the State, in common with his Muslim co-citizens. Not only is there no specific provision in the Our'an, prescribing punishment for an apostate in the phenomenal world, but several verses of the Holv Book envisage the natural death of the apostate in his condition of disbelief and even contemplate repeated apostasies and reversions to the true faith, on the part of an individual. He has also his whole lifetime available to him for repentance, short of the actual moment of death.

This position positively militates against the theory evolved in the course of our religious history that an apostate must receive the capital sentence, immediately or after a short period of grace, on his very first detection. The Qur'an, however, permits fighting and the severest action against those who are actively hostile to the Muslim community or seek to disrupt the social order but only till such time as peace is restored, and it is ensured that religion is for Allah only, which means that all religious persecution should cease.

A survey of the relevant incidents that occurred in the Holy Prophet's lifetime reveals no departure from the Divine norms, and this indeed was to be eminently expect-

ed of the Perfect Exemplar. Some reported sayings of the Prophet, which appear to be couched in general terms and whose circumstantial antecedents are not clearly known, must receive specific interpretations such as would involve factual presumptions for bringing them into conformity with the words of the Qur'an. The possibility that the narrators who have transmitted these sayings had omitted to give, or failed to recollect, the appurtenant circumstances cannot be excluded. In the case of some of these sayings, a few qualifications have been read into them by our Doctors of Law themselves and our suggested presumptions are, therefore, not without warrant, specially when the overriding consideration is kept in mind that no action or saying could have been contradictory to what is explicitly mentioned in the Qur'an. Indeed some positive instances in which the Prophet of God refrained from action against apostates have been found to exist, and this fortifies the suggested assumptions underlying the reported general sayings. In the face of such instances, it is difficult to postulate that the Prophet had enunciated a general rule prescribing the death penalty for apostasy simpliciter.

The occurrences during the regimes of the four Rightly-Guided Caliphs, on which the thesis of the capital punishment for apostasy partly rests, have also been examined, and the inference emerges that they were illustrations of requital for active hostility or social disruption and not merely for peaceful dissent from the true faith, after its initial acceptance. In some of these cases, the relevant facts are shrouded in obscurity so that no clear guidance is furnished by them. Verbal utterances of some of the Caliphs, bearing on the subject, which seem to suggest a general and rigorous rule that apostasy must be visited

#### Summary and Conclusions

with the death sentence, in the absence of full knowledge of the facts to which they pertained, would require to be interpreted in consonance with the letter and spirit of the Our'an and the assumption would be legitimate that the persons concerned had committed not merely lesc majeste of the Faith but that they had also transgressed the limits of civic liberty, to the prejudice of the collective interests of the community. Some of these sayings are of dubious authenticity. Moreover, no opinion based on individual ijtihād of even an august Ṣaḥābi can be accepted as a binding precedent, if it is found to be contrary to the Divine injunctions on the Prophet's practice. directly or indirectly. Some instances indeed, in which the extreme penalty was withheld from an apostate. fortify the conclusion that no inelastic general rule on the subject existed and each case was conditioned by its own exigencies.

The Fugahā' (jurists) acknowledge generally that no punishment for apostasy is prescribed in the Our'an. Their principal reliance for the view that apostasy must be punished with death is on certain gauli (verbal) ahadith, but as has been brought out in the discussion of those savings, the relevant occasion or the circumstances to which they might have reference are not fully explained. Some of these savings have been subjected to qualifications and exceptions by some very acute minds among the jurisconsults, and it is only a justifiable further step that a presumption about their factual basis being Hirāb or Muhāribah (active hostility to the community) should be raised. The attempt to gain indirect support from some verses of the Our'an for the orthodox view cannot be described as successful. Historically speaking the defectors from the faith, in olden times, almost invariably

joined the enemy ranks and became violent antagonists of Muslims. That seems to be the genesis of the prescription of the capital sentence for apostasy and no necessity was apparently felt of analysing the circumstances of each individual case to discover whether the element of *Hirāb* co-existed with apostasy or not. In course of time, decisions justifiable on their own facts hardened into a general rule prescribing the extreme penalty for apostasy. At least one old exegetist—Ibn Hayyān Andalusī—and one modern jurist—Shaikh Maḥmūd Shaltūt—have laid down expressly the principle that shedding of a person's blood is not justifiable for simple, peaceful apostasy. Apparently Chalpī and Ibn Hammām also favour this view for they consider that apostasy is not punishable in this world.

Indirect support is lent to these dissentient voices by a different line of approach favoured by some of the old Doctors of Law. In contrast with the majority view that either no opportunity for repentance should be allowed to a renegade or that only a limited period of grace would be permissible, Ibrāhīm Nakha'ī and Sufyān Thaurī held the opinion that the door of repentance was always open to a defector from the faith during his lifetime and that clearly implies, as Ibn Qudamah has observed while commenting on this opinion, that an apostate can never be killed. This position, it is submitted, is much more in harmony with the Qur'anic texts than the generally accepted orthodox view that a change of faith by a Muslim invites the penalty of death. Some of the exegetists of the Qur'an have made it absolutely clear that on the basis of God's Word, the choice of one's faith must be a voluntary act, unfettered by pressure or coercion of any kind and that any other view would negative God's scheme

#### Summary and Conclusions

of this earthly life being an ordeal and an opportunity for testing the individual soul's capacity for righteousness, in the empiric terrestrial setting. In this respect no rational distinction can be made between original and adopted disbelief. The argument based on supposed indignity offered to Islam by a renegade should be set against the consideration that it would be much more undignified for the true Faith to retain adherents by coercion. By and large the orthodox dictum is sought-to be buttressed with questionable logic and reasoning that is unconscious of its own inner contradictions.

At best, punishment for apostasy can be adopted by way of Ta'zīr and not as a Hadd specified in the Qur'an. The position would be analogous to breaking a prohibition, for example, with regard to drinking, for which the Our'an does not expressly prescribe a definite punishment. The principle of Ta'zīr is that both the propriety and measure of punishment for such offences which require to be suppressed in the collective interest, at any particular time or in a particular exigency, depends on the discretion of the sovereign authority. A relevant consideration, however, would be that apostasy being an offence in the realm of the rights of God (Huquq Allah) rather than the rights of mankind (Huquq al-'Ibad), as Sarakhsi has pointed out, may well be left to be dealt with by the Almighty in the Hereafter and there would be no pressing necessity to punish a peaceful defection from the faith. It would be expedient not to punish such a peaceful change of faith, for fear of reprisals by other non-Islamic States and to avoid the danger of internecine wars between organised communities. This course is also consistent with the doors of missionary activity of Muslims being kept open.

that Pakistan is a member of the United Nations whose Charter declares in its Preamble that the Peoples of the United Nations are determined, inter alia, to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person. Art. 1 of that Charter lays it down as one of the purposes of the United Nations "to achieve international co-operation in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural or humanitarian character and promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion." Art. 55 of the Charter prescribes that "with a view to the creation of conditions of stability and wellbeing which are necessary for peaceful and friendly relations among nations, based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, the United Nations shall promote: "... (c) universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion." Art. 56 provides that "all members pledge themselves to take joint and separate action in co-operation with the Organisation for the achievement of the purposes set forth in Art. 55."

On 10 December 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations passed and proclaimed the "Universal Declaration of Human Rights". Art. 18 of that Declaration reads as follows:

Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

The Declaration may not, in law, amount to a binding agreement among the nations, but it represents by con-

## Summary and Conclusions

sensus the common aspirations of the world community and at least places a moral obligation on members of the United Nations not to disregard its provisions. It may be added that these provisions do not appear to be repugnant to the liberal spirit of tolerance of the Qur'an and the Sunnah and there is consequently no reason for refusal to abide by them. It was probably in recognition, partly, of this salient fact that the Constitutions of 1956 and 1962 promulgated in Pakistan guaranteed to all citizens, including the minority communities, equality before the Law, equal protection of the Law and the right to profess. practise and propagate any religion, subject to law, public order and morality. The Fundamental Rights assured to citizens in these constitutional instruments also included the right of any religious denomination to establish, maintain and manage its own religious institutions and the right of any section of citizens to preserve its own distinctive culture. These rights were declared to be justiciable and the framers of these two Constitutions were obviously conscious of the international understanding on the subject.

But coming nearer home, we come across a more fundamental fact. Ch. Muḥammad 'Alī, an ex-Prime Minister of Pakistan, in his book, *The Emergence of Pakistan* (p. 240), while commenting on the Qa'id-i-A'zam's first address to the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan, delivered on 11 August 1947, has made the following pertinent observations:

What is overlooked is that Pakistan came into existence not by conquest but as the result of a negotiated agreement between the representatives of the Hindu and Muslim communities to partition the subcontinent. An explicit and integral part of the agreement was that the minorities in both states would have equal rights and equal

protection of law. In that context, the Quaid-i-Azam was wholly right in asserting the fundamental principle that "we are all citizens of one State." It follows that the state must give full protection to the "life, property and religious beliefs of its subjects [and] should wholly and solely concentrate on the well-being of people and especially of the masses and the poor." These practical tasks of statesmanship can be fulfilled only by giving equal rights and equal responsibilities to all citizens. But this can neither negate the fact that the vast majority of the citizens of Pakistan are Muslims nor take away the responsibility for leadership from the Muslim community. The principles of governing the country will inevitably be based on Islam, if the leadership is sincere in its professions. . . .

These agreed guarantees, in effect, give the status of Mu'ahids (people with whom there is a pact) to non-Muslims who live in Pakistan and owe allegiance to the Islamic State under the auspices of the Constitution. One may hazard the prediction, without much fear of contradiction, that a similar pattern of guaranteed fundamental rights would also form part of any future constitution of this country. In these circumstances, there would be a distinct impediment in the way of our legislators, if a proposal is put forward to make apostasy on the part of a Muslim to be punishable under any law enforceable in our Courts. The persons in authority would be constrained, in consequence, to exercise their discretion against such legislation and no punishment by way of Ta'zir even would be regarded as apt for defection from the Faith. In the humble opinion of the present writer, such a consummation would be in conformity with the Our'anic texts which remove punishment for disbelief, whether original or adopted, from the purview of the short span of human life on this earth and relegate it to the eternal life after death. The august practice of the Prophet of Islam is in no sense in conflict with this position.

138

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

#### Commentaries of the Qur'an

- Ahkom al-Qur'ān—Abī Bakr Ahmad b. 'Alī al-Rāzī al-Jassās (Matba'at al-Bihīyyat al-Misrīyyah, 1347 H.).
- Aḥkām al-Qur'ān—Abī Bakr Muḥammad b. 'Abdullah known as Ibn al-'Arabī (1st edn., 1376/1957).
- Anwār al-Tanzīl wa Asrār al-Tā'wīl—Nāṣir al-Dīn 'Abdullah b. 'Umar b. Muḥammad al-Baiḍāwī, with Tafṣīr al-Jalālain of al-Suyūṭī, and al-Muḥalla (Maṭba'ah Muṣṭafā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, Egypt, 1358/1939). Also the same commentary on the margin of the Qur'ān published by the same Maṭba'ah, 1344 H.
- Bayān al-Qur'ān—M. Ashraf 'Alī Thānwī (Ashraf al-Maṭābi', Thana Bhawan, U. P. India).
- al-Durr ol-Manthür f i al-Tafsir bi al-Mathür-Jalal al-Din 'Abd al-Rahman b. Abi Bakr al-Suyūți (possibly published in Egypt).
- Fath al-Bayan fi Maquisid al-Qur'an-Siddiq Hasan Khan (Mak-tabat al-Asimah, Cairo 1307 H.).
- Jāmi' al-Bayān fī al-Tafsīr al-Qur'ān—Imām Abī Ja'far Muḥam-mad b. Jarīr al-Ṭabarī (Maṭba'at al-Maimanīyyah, Egypt).
- al-Kashshāf 'an Haqā'iq—Ghawāmiz al-Tanzīl wa 'Uyūn al-Aqāwīl fi Wajūb al-Tā'wīl—Imām Muḥammad b. 'Umar al-Zamakhsharī (Matba'at al-Istiqāmah, Cairo, 1365/1946).
- Mafātīḥ al-Ghā'ib, known as Tafsīr al-Kabīr—Imām Fakhr al-Dīn Muḥammad al-Rāzī (Maṭba'at al-'Āmirat al-Sharafīyyah, Egypt, 1308 H.).
- Rūḥ al-Ma'ānī fī Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-'Azīm wa'l-Sab' al-Mathānī—
  Abi'l-Faḍl Shihāb al-Dīn, al-Sayyid Maḥmūd—al-Ālūsī alBaghdādī (Idārat al-Ṭabā'at al-Munīrīyyah, Egypt).
- Tafsīr 'Abdullah ibn 'Abbās (Urdu) with Lubāb al-Nuqūl fī Asbāb al-Nuzūl of al-Suyūtī and trans. of the Qur'ān into Urdu by Maulānā Ashraf 'Alī Thanwī (Matba'ah Sa'īdī, Kalam Company, Karachi).

139

- al-Tafsīr al-Kabīr known as al-Baḥr al-Muḥīļ—Athīr al-Dīn Abī 'Abdullah Muḥammad b. Yūsuf b. 'Alī b. Yūsuf b. Ḥayyān al-Andalusī al-Gharnāṭī al-Jayānī, known as Abī Ḥayyān (Maktabah wa Matābi al-Naṣr al-Ḥadī that al-Riyāḍ).
- Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-'Azīm—H. 'Imād al-Din Abu'l-Fiḍā', Ismā'il b. Kathir (Dār al-Iḥyā' al-Kutub al-'Arabīyyah, 'Īsā al-Bābī al-Ḥalabī, Egypt).
- Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-Ḥakīm—al-Shaikh Maḥmūd Shaltūt (Dār al-Qalam, Egypt, 1966).
- Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-Ḥakīm, known as Tafsīr al-Manār--al-Sayyid Muḥammad Rashīd Riḍā' (Maṭba'at al-Manār, Egypt, 1349/ 1931).
- Tafsīr al-Qur'ān al-Jalīl, entitled Lubāb al-Tā'wīl fi Ma'ānī al-Tanzīl—'Alā' al-Dīn 'Alī b. Muḥammad b. Ibrāhīm al-Baghdādī, known as al-Khāzan.
- Tafsir al-Qur'an-M. Shabbir Ahmad 'Uthmani.
- Tafsīr Mū'daḥ al-Qur'ān—Maulānā Shāh 'Abd al-Qādir (Maṭba'ah Khādiman al-Islām, Delhi) and also on margin of Fath al-Raḥmān Tarjumān'al-Qur'ān—Aḥmad b. 'Abd al-Raḥīm (Shāh Walīullah) (Maṭba'ah Fārūqī, Delhi, 1312 H.).
- Tafsīr Rūh al-Bayūn—al-Shaikh Ismā'il Ḥaqqī al-Bārusawī (al-Maṭba'at al-'Uthmānīyyah).
- Tarjumān al-Qur'ān—Abu'l-Kalām Āzād (Sh. Mubārak 'Alī, Lahore).

#### Hadith Literature

- Fath al-Būrī—Abu'l-Fadl Shihāb al-Dīn Ahmad b. 'Alı b. Muḥammad b. Ḥajar al-'Asqalānī (al-Matba'at al-Bihīyyat al-Miṣrīyyah, 1378 H.)
- Jāmi' Tirmidhī Sharīf—Arabic-Urdu-Nā'ib Ilusain Naqwi and M. Muḥammad 'Alī (Sh. Ghulam Ali & Sons, Lahore, 1963).
- Kanz al-'Ummal-Shaikh 'Alā' al-Dīn 'Alī Muttaqī-Urdu trans. by S. Farīd al-Dīn alias Achche Mian (Rampur, 1966).
- Miskhāt al-Maṣābiḥ—Walī al-Din Muḥammad Khaṭīb 'Umrī—Arabic-Urdu—M. Nā'ib Ḥusain Naqwi and M. Muḥammad 'Alī (Sh. Ghulam Ali & Sons, Lahore, 1964.)

#### Bibliography

- al-Musawwā min Ahādith al-Muwattā' (Matba'at al-Salafiyyah, Mecca, 1353 H.).
- Muwațțā-Imām Mālik b. Anas al-Așbahī (Egypt).
- Nasab al-Rāyah li Ahādīth al-Hidāyah—'Allāmah Jamāl al-Dīn Abī Muhammad 'Abdullah b. Yūsuf al-Hanafī al-Zaila'ī (Dābhīl, Surat, India).
- Sāhih al-Bukhārī—Arabic-Urdu—M. Nā'ib Ḥusain Naqwī and M. Muḥammad 'Alī (Sh. Ghulam Ali & Sons, Lahore, 1963).
- Saḥīḥ al-Bukhārī—(Aṣḥaḥ al-Maṭābi' Kutub Khānah-i Rashīdīyyah, Delhi, 1376 n.: also Aṣḥaḥ al-Matābi' Nūr Muḥammad, Karachi, 1381/1961).
- Ṣaḥīḥ—Imām Muslim (Maṭba'ah Muṣṭafā al Bābī al-Ḥalabī, Cairo, 1377/1958).
- Sharh Ma'ānī al-Āthār—Abū Ja'far Ṭaḥāwi (Maṭba'at al-Muṣṭa-fā'ī, Delhi).
- Sunan Abū Dāwād (Maktabah Mustafā Muhammad, Cairo, 1950).
- Sunan al-Kubrā—Abū Bakr Ahmad ibn Ḥusain al-Baihaqī (Maktabah Rahīmīyyah, Deoband).
- Sunan al-Nasā'ā—(Maktabat al-Salafīyyah, Lahore, 1376 H.); also with Sharh of Jalāl al-Dīn al-Suyūṭī (al-Maṭba'at al-Misrīyyah, al-Azhar).
- Sunan-Ibn Mājah (Maṭba'ah Mujtabā'ī, Delhi, and Aṣḥaḥ al-Maṭābi' Nūr Muḥammad, Karachi).
- Talkhīs al-Bukhārī—Arabic-Urdu—Ra'īs Ahmad Ja'frī (Sh. Ghulam Ali & Sons, Lahore, 1965-6).
- 'Umdat al-Qārī Sharh Ṣaḥīḥ al-Bukhārī—Badr al-Dīn Abī Muḥammad Maḥmūd b. Aḥmad al-'Aīnī al-Ḥanafī (Dār al-Ṭabā'at al-'Āmirah, Egypt).

#### Fiqh

Aḥkām al-Murtadd fī al-Sharī'at al-Islāmīyyah—Nu'mān 'Abd al-Razzāq al-Sāmarā'i (Dār al-'Arabiyyah li'l-Ṭabā'at wa'l-Nashr wa'l-Tauzī', Beirut, Lebanon).

- Bahr al-Rā'iq Sharh Kanz al-Daqā'iq—Ibn Nujaim Miṣrī (Matba'at al-Miṣrīyyah, 1st edn.).
- al-Hidāyah ma' al-Kifāyah—(Matba'ah Ahmadī, Delhi).
- Hujjat Ullāh al-Bālighah—Shāh Wall Ullah Dehlawi—Urdu trans. by M. 'Abd al-Raḥīm (Qaumi Kutub Khanah, Lahore, 1953).
- al-Islām, 'Aqīdah wa Sharī'ah—Shaikh Maḥmūd Shaltūt (Maṭ-ba'ah Dār al-Qalam, Cairo, 2nd edn.).
- Jāmi' al-Fawā'id min Jāmi' al-Uṣūl wa Majma' al-Zawā'id—Imām Majd al-Dīn Abī al-Sa'ādat al-Mubārak b. Muḥammad b. al-Athīr al-Jazrī al-Mūṣalī (1346 H.).
- Kitāb al-Muqaddamat al-Mahdāt li Bayān ma Iqtidathū—Rusūm al-Mudawwanah min al-Aḥkām al-Sharī'ah wa'l-Taḥsīlāt al-Muḥkamāt li Ųmmahāt Masa'ilaha al-Mushkilāt—Ibn Rushd. with al-Mudawwanat al-Kubrā of Imām Mālik.
- Kitāb al-Risālah—Imām Muhammad b. Idrīs Shāfi'i—Urdu trans. by M. Muftī Muhammad Amjad 'Alī (Idārah Tahqīqati-Islāmī—Muhammad Sa'īd & Sons, Karachi, 1968).
- al-Mabsūt—Shams al-A'immah Abī Bakr Muḥammad al-Sarakhsī (Maṭba'at al-Sa'ādat, Cairo, 1324 H.).
- Mubādī Nizām al-Ḥukm fi'l-Islām—Dr 'Abd al-Ḥamīd (Dār al-Ma'ārif, Egypt, 1966).
- al-Mughnī—Abī Muḥammad Muwaffiq al-Din b. Qudāmah al-Maqdasī—with marginal notes by al-Sayyid Muḥammad Rashīd Ridā' (Dār al-Manār, Egypt, 3rd edn.).
- Sharh al-Zaila'i 'alā Kanz al-Daqā'iq (Matba'at al-'Āmirīyyah, Būlāq, Egypt, 1313 H.).
- Sharḥ Fatḥ al-Qadīr—Shaikh al-Imām Kamāl al-Din Muḥammad al-Siwāsī thumm al-Sikandarī, known as Ibn al-Hummām al-Ḥanafī—'alā al-Hidāyah, Sharḥ Bidāyat Mubtadī of Shaikh al-Islām Burhān al-Dīn 'Alī al-Marghinānī, and on its margin Sharḥ al-'Ināyah 'ala al-Hidāyah by Akmal al-Dīn Muḥammad b. Maḥmād al-Bābartī, and notes by Sa'dullah bin 'Ainī known as Sadī al-Chalpī (Maṭba'at al-Kubrā al-'Āmirīyyah, Būlāq, Egypt, 1316 H.).
- Tarjumān al-Sunnah-M. Badr 'Alam Nadwī (Matba'ah Delhi, 1367/1948).

# Bibliography

#### History and Miscellaneous

- A'zam al-Kalām fi Irtiqā' al-Islām—Urdu trans. by M. 'Abd al-Ḥaqq of Proposed Political, Legal and Social Reforms under Muslim Rule by Nawab A'zam Yar Jang (Maṭba'ah Mufīd-i-'Ām, Agra, 1910).
- Dā'irah-i-Ma'ārif-i-Islāmīyyah—(University of the Punjab, 1971). Encyclopaedia of Islam (Leyden, 1932).
- al-Fakhrī fī Ādāb al-Sulṭānīyyah wa'l-Duwal al-Islāmīyyah—
  Muḥammad b. 'Alī b. Ṭabāṭabā' known as Ibn al-Ṭiqṭiqā—
  ed. by W. Ahlwardt (Griefawald), 1958; its Urdu trans. by
  Maulānā Muḥammad Ja'far Shāh Phulwārwī (Idārah-i-Thaqāfat-i-Islāmīyyah, Lahore, 1962).
- al-Fauz al-Kabîr—Hujjat al-Islâm H. Shāh Walī Ullah Dehlawī— Urdu trans, by Muḥammad Salīm 'Abdullah (Urdu Academy Sind, Karachi, 1960).
- Hayāt-i-Muḥammad—Muḥammad Ḥusain Haikal—Urdu trans. as Sīrat al-Rasāl by Muḥammad Wārith Kāmil (Maktabah-i-Kārwān, Karachi, 1964).
- Imām Ibn Taimīyyah—Professor Abū Zahrah (Egypt)—Urdu trans, by Nā'ib Ḥusain Naqwī (Sh. Ghulam Ali & Sons, Lahore, 1968).
- Islām aur Madhhabī Āzādī—M. Jalāl al-Dīn Shams (Lahore Art Press, Lahore, 1950).
- Islām aur Masiḥīyyat—Maulāna Abū'l-Wafā' Thanā' Ullah Amritsarī (Din Muhammadi Press, Lahore, 1960).
- al-Kāmil—Ibn al-Athīr—Urdu trans. by M. Maqṣūd 'Alī Khairābādī (Dā'irah Mu'īn al-Ma'ārif, Karachi, 1966).
- Law of Apostasy in Islam, The—Rev. Samuel M. Zwemer (Marshall Bros., Ltd., London, 1924).
- Madhhab Ke Nam Par Khūn-Mirzā Tāhir Ahmad (1963).
- Murtadd kī Sazā Islāmī Qūnūn Men—Sayyid Abu'l-A'lā Maudūdī (Islami Publications, Lahore, 4th edn., 1963).
- Muslim Conduct of State—Dr Muhammad Hamidullah (Sh. Muhammad Ashraf, Lahore, 5th edn., 1966).
- Qatl-i-Murtadd aur Islām Maulvī Sher 'Alī (Qadian, 1925).

- Qatl-i-Murtadd, Ghulām aur Laundiyān—M. Ghulām Ahmad Pervez (Idārah Tulū'-i-Islām, Lahore).
- Qatl-i-Murtadd—Maulānā Abu'l-Jalāl Nadwī A'zamgarhī (Mațba'ah Ḥakīm Barham (Gorakhpur).
- Religion of Islam—Maulānā Muḥammad 'Alī (Ahmadiyyah Anjuman Isha'at-i-Islam, Labore, 1936).
- Şiddiq-i-Akbar—Maulānā Sa'id Ahmad Akbarābādī (Nadwat al-Muşannifin, Delhi, 1961).
- Sīrat al-Nabī—Shaikh Abī Muḥammad 'Abd al-Mālik ibn Hishām (Maktabah-i-Rabī', Halab, Syria), ed. by Muḥammad Rawās; also its Urdu trans. by M. Qutb al-Din Ahmad Mahmūdi (Dār al-Tab' 'Uthmānīyyah, Haidarābād Deccan, 1949).
- Six Lectures on the Reconstruction of Religious Thought in Islam— Dr. Sir Muhammad Iqbal (Kapur Art Printing Works, Lahore, 1930).
- Siyāsī Wathīqah-jāt—Dr Muḥammad Ḥamīdullah—Urdu trans. by Abū Yaḥyā Imām Khān Nowshehrawī (Majlis-i-Taraqqi-i-Adab, Lahore, 1960).
- Tā'rīkh al-Rusul wa'l-Mulūk—Abū Ja'far Muḥammad ibn Jarīr Țabarī—Urdu trans. by Sayyid Muḥammad Ibrāhīm Nadwī (Karachi, 1967): also Arabic text ed. by M. J. DeGeoge (E.J. Brill, 1890—Lugd—Batavia).
- War and Peace in the Law of Islam-Majid Khadduri (Johns Hopkins Press, 1955).

